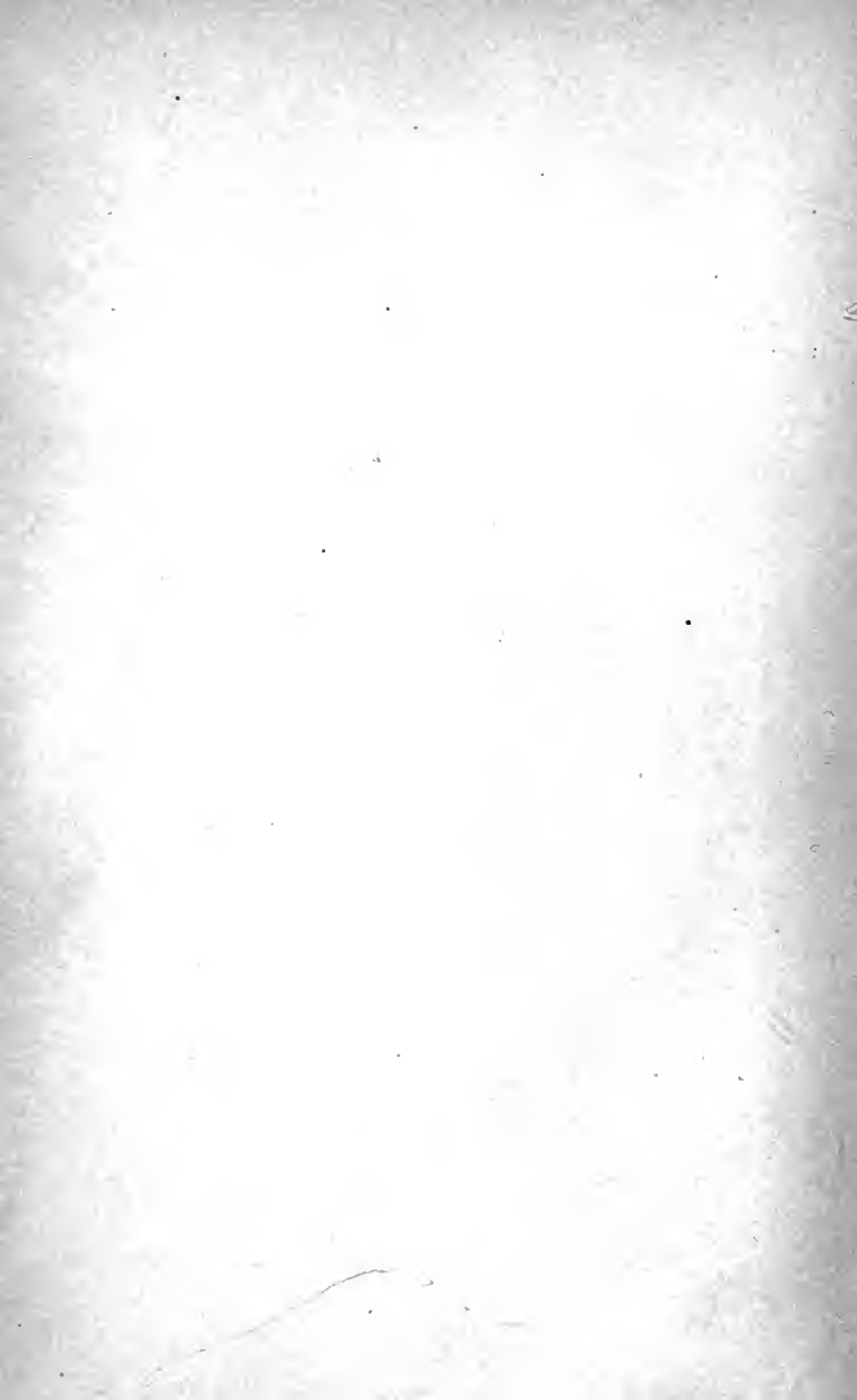




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D.

TWENTY-SEVENTH

ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

DANTE SOCIETY

(CAMBRIDGE, MASS.)

1908

ACCOMPANYING PAPER

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BOSTON
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1909

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STATEMENT OF ACCOUNTS

(From May 21, 1907, to May 19, 1908)

Balance in the hands of the Treasurer, May		
21, 1907	\$541 20	
Membership fees till May 19, 1908	394 80	
Copyrights, etc.	<u>88 74</u>	\$1024 74
Paid Messrs. Ginn & Company		\$207 06
Paid the Treasurer of Harvard College . .		150 00
Printing, postage, etc.		13 49
Balance in the hands of the Treasurer, May		
19, 1908	<u>654 19</u>	\$1024 74

BY-LAWS

1. This Society shall be called the DANTE SOCIETY. Its object shall be the encouragement of the study of the Life and Works of Dante.

2. Any person desirous to become a member of this Society may do so by signifying his or her wish in writing to the Secretary, and by the payment of an annual fee of five dollars.

3. An Annual Meeting for the election of officers shall be held at Cambridge on the third Tuesday of May, of which due notice shall be given to the members by the Secretary.

4. Special meetings may be held at any time appointed by vote of the members at the Annual Meeting, or by call from the President and Secretary.

5. The officers shall be a President, a Vice President, a Secretary and Treasurer, and a Librarian, who, together with three members thereto chosen, shall form the Council of the Society. All these officers shall be chosen at the Annual Meeting, and their term of service shall be for one year, or until their successors are elected. Vacancies in the Council shall be filled for the remainder of the year by the Council.

6. The President, or, in his absence, the Vice President, or, in the absence of both, any member of the Council, shall preside at all meetings of the Society and of the Council.

7. The Secretary and Treasurer shall keep a record of the meetings of the Society and of the Council, shall collect and receive all dues, and keep accounts of the income and expenditure of the Society, shall give notice of meetings, and shall perform all other duties appropriate to his office.

8. The Council shall hold meetings at such times as it may appoint, shall determine on the use to be made of the income of

the Society, shall endeavor to promote the special objects of the Society in such ways as may seem most appropriate, and shall make an annual report of their proceedings, including a full statement of accounts, at each Annual Meeting. This report shall be made in print for distribution to the members.

9. No officer of the Society shall be competent to contract debts in the name of the Society, and no expenditure shall be made without a vote of the Council.

10. A majority of the Council shall form a quorum for the transaction of business.

11. Any person distinguished for his interest in the purposes of the Society, or who has rendered it valuable service, may be chosen an Honorary Member at any regular meeting of the Society, and shall be entitled to all its privileges without annual assessment.

12. The preceding rules may be changed at any time by unanimous vote of the Council.

THE DANTE PRIZE

The Society offers an annual prize of one hundred dollars for the best essay by a student in any department of Harvard University, or by a graduate of not more than three years' standing, on a subject drawn from the life or works of Dante. The competition is open to students and graduates of similar standing of any college or university in the United States.

For the years 1908-1910 the following subjects have been proposed :

1. *A study of the vocabulary of Dante's Lyrics.*
2. *The classification of Dante's Miscellaneous Lyrics.*
3. *The influence of Boethius on the Vita Nuova and the Convito.*
4. *A discussion of the authorship of Il Fiore.*
5. *A study of Dante's influence upon English literature (or upon any single author or period).*
6. *The relation of Dante's theological doctrines to the present teachings of the Church of Rome.*
7. *The relation of modern scientific discovery to Dante's conception of the divine order of the universe.*
8. *The main reasons for the increase of interest in the Divina Commedia during the past fifty years.*
9. *Dante and Cecco d'Ascoli.*
10. *A study of the decline of Dante's influence in Italy in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.*
11. *Modern traits in Dante.*
12. *Dante in the anecdotic literature of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.*
13. *The influence of Guido Cavalcanti on Dante.*
14. *A criticism of Torraca's edition of the Divina Commedia.*

Essays must be deposited with the Dean of Harvard College, Cambridge, Mass., on or before the *first day of May*.

Essayists are at liberty to write on any one of the subjects which have been proposed in the years during which the Dante Prize has been offered, or to propose new subjects for the approval of the Council of the Society.

On the title-page must be written an assumed name and a statement of the writer's standing, i.e. whether he is a graduate or an undergraduate (and of what college or university); if he is an undergraduate, to what class he belongs, and to what department of the college or university. Under cover with the essay must be sent a sealed letter containing the true name and address of the writer, and superscribed with his assumed name.

The essays must be written upon letter paper, of good quality, of the quarto size, with a margin of not less than one inch at the top, at the bottom, and on each side, so that they may be bound up without injury to the writing. The sheets on which the essay is written must be securely stitched together.

The judges of the essays are a committee of the Dante Society.

In case the judges decide that no essay submitted to them deserves the full prize, they are at liberty to award one or two prizes of fifty dollars, or to award no prize.

The Dante Society has the privilege of retaining and depositing in the Dante Collection of the Harvard College Library any or all essays offered in competition for the Dante Prize, whether successful or not.

Since its establishment the Dante Prize (in full or in part) has been awarded to the following persons :

HEINRICH CONRAD BIERWIRTH 1887.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Obligations to the Schoolmen, especially to Thomas Aquinas.*

GEORGE RICE CARPENTER 1888.

For an essay entitled *The Interpretation and Reconciliation of the Different Accounts of his Experiences after the Death of Beatrice, given by Dante in the Vita Nuova and the Convito.*

CHARLES STERRETT LATHAM 1890.

For an essay entitled *A Translation into English of Dante's Letters, with Explanatory and Historical Comments.*

KENNETH MCKENZIE 1894.

For an essay entitled *The Rise of the Dolce Stil Nuovo*.

JEREMIAH DENIS MATTHIAS FORD 1895.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Influence upon Spanish Literature during the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries*.

ANNETTE FISKE 1897.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Obligations to Old French and Provençal Lyric Poetry*.

ARTHUR NEWTON PEASLEE 1900.

For an essay entitled *A Metrical Rhyming Translation of the Three Canzoni of the Convito*.

HENRY LATIMER SEAVER 1901.

For an essay entitled *A Translation of the Canzoni in the Convito*.

ALAIN CAMPBELL WHITE 1902.

The Latham Prize for an essay entitled *A Translation of the Quaestio de Aqua et Terra, and a Discussion of its Authenticity*.

ALPHONSO DE SALVIO 1902.

For an essay entitled *The Verse Endings in the Divina Commedia in which Dante has made "li vocaboli dire nelle sue rime altro che quello ch' erano appo gli altri dicitori usati di sprimere."*

FRITZ HAGENS 1903.

For an essay entitled *A Critical Comment of the De Vulgari Eloquentia*.

CHANDLER RATHFON POST 1906.

For an essay entitled *The Beginnings of the Influence of Dante in Castilian and Catalan Literature*.

ALEXANDER GUY HOLBORN SPIERS 1907.

For an essay entitled *Characteristics of the Vita Nuova*.



ANNUAL REPORT

The twenty-seventh annual meeting of the Dante Society was held on May 19, 1908, at Shady Hill, Cambridge. The usual reports of committees were received and acted upon, and the officers were all reëlected for the ensuing year.

In the absence of Professor Rand, Mr. Wilkins made a report for the editors of the Concordance to the Latin works of Dante, expressing the hope that the volume might be printed before the end of the year 1909. Since the time of the meeting good progress has been made, and the completion of the work is not likely to be much delayed beyond the date then set.

Only one essay was submitted for the Dante Prize in 1908, and this was not adjudged worthy of the award.

The Librarian has compiled for the present Report a list of the accessions to the Dante collection in the Harvard Library during the four years from May, 1904, to May, 1908. This is followed by an index which covers all the similar lists published by the Society since Mr. Lane's Dante bibliography of 1890, and

which will furnish, it is hoped, a valuable supplement to that bibliography and to Mr. Koch's catalogue of the Cornell collection.

Professor Norton, the President of the Society since 1892, died in Cambridge on October 21, 1908. The annual meeting in May, 1909, has been specially assigned by the Council to the consideration of his services to Dante studies.

FRED NORRIS ROBINSON

Secretary

APRIL 1, 1909

ADDITIONS TO THE DANTE COLLECTION IN
HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY

MAY 1, 1904 — MAY 1, 1908

COMPILED BY WILLIAM COOLIDGE LANE
Librarian of Harvard University

The following list does not attempt (as earlier lists have done) to include all contributions to periodical literature and to society publications or essays on Dantesque subjects contained in books. A few such are recorded, but the careful notes on current literature to be found now in the *Bullettino* of the Italian Dante Society and in the *Giornale Dantesco* make a comprehensive and minute record of this kind in the Reports of this Society no longer necessary.

Books bought from the appropriations placed by the Dante Society from time to time in the hands of the Harvard Library are marked with an asterisk [*]; those bought from Mr. A. C. White's gift are marked with a dagger [†]

WORKS OF DANTE

Tutte le opere di Dante ; nuovamente rivedute nel testo dal *Dr. E. Moore*. Con indice dei nomi propri e delle cose notabili compilato dal *Dr. Paget Toynbee*. 3^a ed. riveduta. Oxford, University Press. 1904. sm. 8°. pp. viii, 490.

Gift of the publishers.

DIVINA COMMEDIA

*Dante ; con nuove, et vtili ispositioni. Aggiuntoui di più vna tauola di tutti i vocaboli più degni d'osservatione, che à i luoghi loro sono dichiarati. Lione, appresso G. Rouillio. 1575. sm. 8°. pp. 627, (12). Port. and wdcts.

Reissue of the Lyons ed. of 1551 and 1571.

*La divina commedia, [Inferno and Purgatorio]; illustrata da *Ferdinando Arrivabene*. [With an Italian prose paraphrase.] 4 vol. Brescia. 1812-18. sm. 8°.

La divina commedia. Con indice. [Edited by *Angelo Sicca*.] Padova, tipografia della Minerva. 1827. 1. 8°. pp. viii, 140. (Parnaso classico italiano.)

La divina commedia; con spiegazioni tratte dai migliori commentarj, e colla Vita di Dante da Giovanni Boccaccio. Paris. 1847. 12°. pp. xxxvi, 432.

Gift of Mr. Joseph H. Clark.

*La divina commedia; col commento di *G. Biagioli*. 2^a ed. 3 vol. Napoli. 1850. sm. 8°. Port. and plates.

*La divina commedia, giusta la lezione del *Codice bartoliniano*, con un discorso preliminare intorno all'autore. [Edited by C. Princigi.] Aggiuntevi le varianti lezioni del testo approvato dagli Accademici della crusca. Lipsia. 1853. 16°. pp. xxxvi, 529.

La commedia; novamente riveduta nel testo e dichiarata da *Brunone Bianchi*. 4^a ed., corredata del Rimario. Ed. stereotipa. Firenze. 1854. sm. 8°. pp. xxiv, 742, (2), 112.

From the library of Professor Charles Eliot Norton.

With J. R. Lowell's autograph and ms. notes. A manuscript note by Professor Norton on the fly leaf reads, "'I give to my friend Charles Eliot Norton a book from my Library at his discretion.' — First clause of the will of James Russell Lowell. This is the book chosen by me. For many years it was the Dante most constantly in use by J. R. L.; and during the last year of his life it was always at his side, within reach, on the floor, or the book-stand. November, 1891. C. E. N."

*La divina commedia spiegata alle scuole cattoliche da *Bennassuti Luigi*. 3 vol. Padova. 1869-70. sm. 8°.

La divina commedia; col commento di *Pietro Fraticelli*. Nuova ed., con giunte e correzioni. Firenze. 1892. sm. 8°. pp. 723, cxxx. Port. and 3 plates.

Gift of Mr. P. H. Tufts.

*La commedia; il testo Wittiano riveduto da *Paget Toynbee*. Londra. 1900. 8°. pp. 554.

La divina commedia. Riproduzione del Codice tempiano maggiore della R. Biblioteca mediceo-laurenziana. *Inferno*. [Con Descrizione del codice di *Gius. Vandelli*.] Firenze. 1902. 16°. pp. 8, (59).

Gift of the Società dantesca italiana.

- *La divina commedia ; illustrata [da] *Attilio Razzolini*. [Milano.] 1902. obl. 24°. ff. (55).

Reproduced in chromolithography from an illuminated manuscript executed after ancient models by the artist and scribe Razzolini.

Lo Inferno. [London], nella stamperia di Ashendene. 1902. 8°. pp. 238. Illustr.

Lo Purgatorio. [London], nella stamperia di Ashendene. 1904. 8°. pp. 242. Illustr.

Lo Paradiso. [London], nella stamperia di Ashendene. 1905. 8°. pp. 244. Illustr.

"Le lettere rubricate da mano sono l'opera di Graily Hewitt, & le incisioni in legno di W. Hooper e C. Keates secondo i disegni dell'edizione stampata in Venezia nell'anno 1491. Il testo è quello rivisto ed emendato dal dottore Edoardo Moore." — *Colophon*.

The three volumes printed at the Ashendene Press are from the library of Professor C. E. Norton.

La divina commedia ; con postille e cenni introduttivi del prof. *Raffaello Fornaciari*. Ed. minuscola. Milano. [1904.] 24°. pp. xxii, (2), 577.

Gift of the publisher, Ulrico Hoepli.

- *La divina commedia ; nuovamente commentata da *Francesco Torraca*. Roma, etc. 1905. sm. 8°. pp. viii, 633.

Contents : — Inferno. — Purgatorio.

Opere di Dante : Divina commedia. 3 vol. Strasburgo. [1905-06.] 16°. (Bibliotheca romanica [no.] 5-6, 16-17, 30-31. Biblioteca italiana.)

- *[Divina commedia. i. Inferno. Tradotto da *A. G. Mekitarista*. *Armen*. Venezia.] 1902. sm. 8°. pp. (24), 469.

No more published.

- *The comedy ; translated by *Patrick Bannerman*. Edinburgh. 1850. 8°. pp. 482.

The vision ; translated by *H. F. Cary*. [Revised, with an introduction, by *Paget Toynbee*.] 3 pt. London. 1900-1902. 16°. Portrs. (The little library.)

Gift of the editor.

The divine comedy; translated by *H. F. Cary*. [Edited, with a life of Dante and introductory notes, by *Paget Toynbee*.] Popular ed. London. [1903.] 8°. pp. 146.

Gift of the editor.

- *The divine comedy; translated by *H. W. Longfellow*. 3 vol. Boston. 1865-1867. 1. 8°.

From the library of Professor Charles Eliot Norton.

"One of twelve copies printed in advance of the regular edition, in order that this volume might be sent as an offering to Florence in honor of the 600th anniversary of Dante's birth. . . . The notes on the margins and on slips in this volume contain suggestions of mine, some of which were adopted in the revision." — *MS. note in vol. i by Charles Eliot Norton*.

The divine comedy; [translated, with notes and illustrations, by *H. W. Longfellow*. Craigie edition.] 3 vol. Boston and New York. [1907, cop. 1904.] sm. 8°. Portrs. and plates.

Gift of the publishers, Houghton, Mifflin & Company.

- *Divina commedia. Translated into English prose by *H. F. Tozer*. Oxford. 1904. sm. 8°. pp. iv, 447.

- *The divine comedy: the Inferno; a translation and commentary by *Marvin R. Vincent*. New York. 1904. 8°. pp. ix, 305.

Il secondo canto dell' Inferno di Dante Alighieri vólto in esametri. 2ª ed. migliorata. *Lat. and Ital.* (CAPOCASA, Savino. Saggio di lingua latina e italiana, Ripatransone, 1882, pp. 5-29.)

- *Isteni színjátéka (Divina commedia). Fordította, bevezette, s jegyzetekkel kísérté *Szász Károly*. 3 vol. Budapest. 1885-1899. sm. 8°. (MAGYAR TUDOMÁNYOS AKADÉMIA, Budapest. Publ.)

Contents: — i. A pokol. 1885. — ii. A purgatorium. 1891. — iii. A paradicsom. 1899.

- *Boska komedja; tłumaczenie *Juliana Korsaka*. Poprzedzone przemowa, czyli wstępami, objaśnione komentarzem według P. Biagioli i Streckfussa. Warszawa. 1860. 8°. pp. (4), 739. 16 plates.

- *El primer canto de la Divina comedia; [traducción en verso] por *J. R. Salas*. Santiago de Chile. 1902. 8°. pp. 15.

- *Dwyfol gan Dante : Annwn, Purdan, Paradwys ; y cyfieithiad gan *Daniel Rees*, y rhagdraith gan *T. Gwynn-Jones*, y darluniau gan *J. Kelt Edwards*, y prif lythyrenan gan *Louise Rolfe* a *Phæbe Rees*. Caernarfon, Swyddfa'r "Herald." London [*etc., etc.*] 1903. 8°. pp. 475.

MINOR WORKS

A translation of the Latin works of Dante. London. 1904. 16°. pp. viii, 427. Front. (Temple classics.)

Contents: — De vulgari eloquentia. [Translated by *A. G. F. Howell.*] — De monarchia, Epistolae, Eclogues, Quaestio de aqua et terra. [Translated by *P. H. Wicksteed.*]

*Eclogae; Joannis de Virgilio carmen et ecloga responsiva. Testo, commento, versione, a cura di *Giuseppe Albini*. Firenze. 1903. 8°. pp. xxx, 77. Facsimile plate. (Biblioteca di opere inedite o rare di ogni secolo della letteratura italiana.)

*The De monarchia of Dante Alighieri; edited, with translation and notes, by *Aurelia Henry*. Boston and New York. 1904. 8°. pp. li, 216.

*La Quaestio de aqua et terra. Edizione principe del 1508 riprodotta in facsimile. Introduzione storica e trascrizione critica del testo latino di *G. Boffito*; con introduzione scientifica dell'ing. O. Zanotti-Bianco e proemio del dott. Prompt. Cinque versioni: italiana (*G. Boffito*), francese e spagnuola (*Dott. Prompt*), inglese (*S. P. Thompson*), e tedesca (*A. Müller*). Firenze. 1905. 8°. pp. xxiii, 89.

*La vita nuova; con introduzione, commento, e glossario di *Giovanni Melodia*. Milano. 1905. sm. 8°. pp. xlvii, 284.

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xii. Flamini, F.

xxi. Corradino, C.

xxxi. Mantovani, D.

xxxii. Tocco, F.

Paradiso.

i. Mazzoni, G.

iv. Albini, G.

vi. Bacci, O.

See also Sonnino, S.

x. Chiara, S. de.

xi. Bertoldi, A.

xx. Lesca, G.

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A SUBJECT INDEX TO THE TITLES OF BOOKS AND ARTICLES ADDED TO THE DANTE COLLEC- TION IN HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY

1890-1908

AS RECORDED IN THE SUCCESSIVE REPORTS OF THE DANTE SOCIETY

The following index in two parts (A. Subjects ; B. Passages in the *Divina Commedia*) is of the same character as that included in the catalogue of "The Dante Collections in the Harvard College and Boston Public Libraries," issued by the Harvard Library in 1890 as No. 34 of its *Bibliographical Contributions*. It supplements that earlier index just as the "Lists of Additions" in the Reports of the Dante Society continue that Catalogue.

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In the Index the heavy-faced figures indicate the number of the Report in which the title is to be found, the lighter figure (if any) following the author's name showing which title under that author is referred to.

Under the heading DANTE are placed only general works, divided into six sections to give some little clew to their character. Additional references to articles on special points should be looked for under *Birth, Exile, Family, History, contemporary, House, Loves, Military experience, Politics*; — *Epitaphs, Monuments, Portraits, Tomb*; — *Catholicism, Heresy, Learning, Natural history, Patriotism, Philosophy, Religion, Theology*; also *Arezzo, Bologna, Florence, Padua, Paris, Pistoia, Rome, Siena, Verona*; also *Dramas, Fiction, Musical compositions, Poems*; also *Lectures, Letters, Societies, Study of Dante*, etc.

For works on the DIVINA COMMEDIA see, in addition to the references under that head, the subjects *Allegory, Angels, Astronomy, Beatific Vision, Characters* (also names of individual persons and characters), *Chronology, Earthly Paradise, Geography, Moral structure, Music, Punishments, Satan, Shades, Sins, Sources*, etc.; also *Bibliography, Commentators, Concordances, Dictionaries, Editions, Illustrations, Imitations, Translations*; — *Controversial works, Lectures, Letters, Reviews*; — also *Language, Prosody, Rhyme, Similes*. For works on single cantos and for comments on single passages see the second part of the Index.

For the compilation of this Index the Society is indebted to the patience and care of Miss Mabel P. Cook of Lexington.

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119 **14** Mancini

Paradiso

LINES

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- 27 Bertoldi
Società
25 23 Zingarelli, 9
43-75 14 Joannes, 2
46 23 Amoni
47-48 23 Morici, 2
131 23 Zingarelli, 9
138 12 Pasqualigo, F., 1

XII

- 13 Cristofori, 3
117 13 Filomusi-Guelfi, 1
118-120 23 Cosmo, 3
127-141 12 Prompt, 4
142 11 Pasqualigo, 6
12 Ronchetti, 2

XIII

- 13 Colagrosso
52-87 17 Hazelfoot
81 23 Ronchetti
103-109 10 Filomusi-Guelfi, 10

XV

- 23 Valeggia, 2
27 Società
73-85 14 Luzzatto
97-135 23 Savagnoli-Marchetti
107-108 16 Toynbee, 5
136 12 Ronchetti, 1

XVI

- 34-39 12 Toynbee, 4
45 23 Ferri Mancini
58-63 23 Luisi, 2

XVII

- 27 Società
52-54 23 Gambèra, 4
70-72 17 Earle

XVIII

- 94-108 13 Mario
23 Caetani, 3

XX

- 27 Lesca

XIX

- 52-57 16 Scrocca
130-135 23 Betti, 1

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XXII

- 74-75 14 Cesare

XXIII

- 79-81 12 Filomusi-Guelfi, 3
81 12 Ghignoni
108 12 Filomusi-Guelfi, 2

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- 27 Rodolico
23 M.
7
100-102 27 Toynbee, 7
112-124 27 Toynbee, 7

XXVI

- 38-39 12 Filomusi-Guelfi, 1
16 Ronchetti, 4
97-102 27 Valgimigli, 1
124-138 14 Cesare
136 23 Cesare, 1, 2

XXVII

- 61 11 S.
136-138 13 Filomusi-Guelfi, 3
23 Gambèra, 4
137 23 Catelani

XXVIII

- 84 10 Filomusi-Guelfi, 5

XXIX

- 51 27 Boffito, 2
94-126 16 Baroni
124-126 14 Cesare

XXX

- 62 23 Betti, 2

XXXI

- 1 14 Inguagiato

XXXII

- 27 Fornaciari
70-72 14 Filomusi-Guelfi, 4
119 12 Artemi

XXXIII

- 23 Bernardino

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TWENTY-EIGHTH

ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

DANTE SOCIETY

(CAMBRIDGE, MASS.)

1909

ACCOMPANYING PAPERS

PROFESSOR CHARLES ELIOT NORTON

By William Roscoe Thayer

GEORGE RICE CARPENTER

By Jefferson Butler Fletcher

AMERICAN DANTE BIBLIOGRAPHY (MAY, 1896 — MAY, 1908)

Compiled by Ethel Dane Roberts

BOSTON

GINN AND COMPANY

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1910

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STATEMENT OF ACCOUNTS

(From May 19, 1908, to May 18, 1909)

Balance in the hands of the Treasurer, May 19, 1908	\$654 19	
Membership fees till May 18, 1909	425 10	
Received of Mr. A. C. White (for clerical work on the Concordance)	200 00	
Copyrights, etc.	<u>52 06</u>	
		\$1331 35
Paid Messrs. Ginn and Company	\$245 59	
Money refunded from sales of Dr. Fay's Concordance	28 00	
Paid for clerical work on the Latin Concordance	174 13	
Printing, postage, etc.	21 65	
Balance in the hands of the Treasurer, May 18, 1909	<u>861 98</u>	
		\$1331.35

BY-LAWS

1. This Society shall be called the DANTE SOCIETY. Its object shall be the encouragement of the study of the Life and Works of Dante.

2. Any person desirous to become a member of this Society may do so by signifying his or her wish in writing to the Secretary, and by the payment of an annual fee of five dollars.

3. An Annual Meeting for the election of officers shall be held at Cambridge on the third Tuesday of May, of which due notice shall be given to the members by the Secretary.

4. Special meetings may be held at any time appointed by vote of the members at the Annual Meeting, or by call from the President and Secretary.

5. The officers shall be a President, a Vice President, a Secretary and Treasurer, and a Librarian, who, together with three members thereto chosen, shall form the Council of the Society. All these officers shall be chosen at the Annual Meeting, and their term of service shall be for one year, or until their successors are elected. Vacancies in the Council shall be filled for the remainder of the year by the Council.

6. The President, or, in his absence, the Vice President, or, in the absence of both, any member of the Council, shall preside at all meetings of the Society and of the Council.

7. The Secretary and Treasurer shall keep a record of the meetings of the Society and of the Council, shall collect and receive all dues, and keep accounts of the income and expenditure of the Society, shall give notice of meetings, and shall perform all other duties appropriate to his office.

8. The Council shall hold meetings at such times as it may appoint, shall determine on the use to be made of the income of

the Society, shall endeavor to promote the special objects of the Society in such ways as may seem most appropriate, and shall make an annual report of their proceedings, including a full statement of accounts, at each Annual Meeting. This report shall be made in print for distribution to the members.

9. No officer of the Society shall be competent to contract debts in the name of the Society, and no expenditure shall be made without a vote of the Council.

10. A majority of the Council shall form a quorum for the transaction of business.

11. Any person distinguished for his interest in the purposes of the Society, or who has rendered it valuable service, may be chosen an Honorary Member at any regular meeting of the Society, and shall be entitled to all its privileges without annual assessment.

12. The preceding rules may be changed at any time by unanimous vote of the Council.

THE DANTE PRIZE

The Society offers an annual prize of one hundred dollars for the best essay by a student in any department of Harvard University, or by a graduate of not more than three years' standing, on a subject drawn from the life or works of Dante. The competition is open to students and graduates of similar standing of any college or university in the United States.

For the year 1909-1910 the following subjects were proposed :

1. *A study of the vocabulary of Dante's Lyrics.*
2. *The classification of Dante's Miscellaneous Lyrics.*
3. *The influence of Boethius on the Vita Nuova and the Convito.*
4. *A discussion of the authorship of Il Fiore.*
5. *A study of Dante's influence upon English literature (or upon any single author or period).*
6. *The relation of Dante's theological doctrines to the present teachings of the Church of Rome.*
7. *The relation of modern scientific discovery to Dante's conception of the divine order of the universe.*
8. *The main reasons for the increase of interest in the Divina Commedia during the past fifty years.*
9. *Dante and Cecco d'Ascoli.*
10. *A study of the decline of Dante's influence in Italy in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.*
11. *Modern traits in Dante.*
12. *Dante in the anecdotic literature of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.*
13. *The influence of Guido Cavalcanti on Dante.*
14. *A criticism of Torraca's edition of the Divina Commedia.*

Essays must be deposited with the Dean of Harvard College, Cambridge, Mass., on or before the *first day of May*.

Essayists are at liberty to write on any one of the subjects which have been proposed in the years during which the Dante Prize has been offered, or to propose new subjects for the approval of the Council of the Society.

On the title-page must be written an assumed name and a statement of the writer's standing, i.e. whether he is a graduate or an undergraduate (and of what college or university); if he is an undergraduate, to what class he belongs, and to what department of the college or university. Under cover with the essay must be sent a sealed letter containing the true name and address of the writer, and superscribed with his assumed name.

The essays must be written upon letter paper, of good quality, of the quarto size, with a margin of not less than one inch at the top, at the bottom, and on each side, so that they may be bound up without injury to the writing. The sheets on which the essay is written must be securely stitched together.

The judges of the essays are a committee of the Dante Society.

In case the judges decide that no essay submitted to them deserves the full prize, they are at liberty to award one or two prizes of fifty dollars, or to award no prize.

The Dante Society has the privilege of retaining and depositing in the Dante Collection of the Harvard College Library any or all essays offered in competition for the Dante Prize, whether successful or not.

Since its establishment the Dante Prize (in full or in part) has been awarded to the following persons :

HEINRICH CONRAD BIERWIRTH 1887.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Obligations to the Schoolmen, especially to Thomas Aquinas*.

GEORGE RICE CARPENTER 1888.

For an essay entitled *The Interpretation and Reconciliation of the Different Accounts of his Experiences after the Death of Beatrice, given by Dante in the Vita Nuova and the Convito*.

CHARLES STERRETT LATHAM 1890.

For an essay entitled *A Translation into English of Dante's Letters, with Explanatory and Historical Comments*.

KENNETH MCKENZIE 1894.

For an essay entitled *The Rise of the Dolce Stil Nuovo*.

JEREMIAH DENIS MATTHIAS FORD 1895.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Influence upon Spanish Literature during the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries*.

ANNETTE FISKE 1897.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Obligations to Old French and Provençal Lyric Poetry*.

ARTHUR NEWTON PEASLEE 1900.

For an essay entitled *A Metrical Rhyming Translation of the Three Canzoni of the Convito*.

HENRY LATIMER SEAVER 1901.

For an essay entitled *A Translation of the Canzoni in the Convito*.

ALAIN CAMPBELL WHITE 1902.

The Latham Prize for an essay entitled *A Translation of the Quaestio de Aqua et Terra, and a Discussion of its Authenticity*.

ALPHONSO DE SALVIO 1902.

For an essay entitled *The Verse Endings in the Divina Commedia in which Dante has made "li vocaboli dire nelle sue rime altro che quello ch' erano appo gli altri dicatori usati di sprimere."*

FRITZ HAGENS 1903.

For an essay entitled *A Critical Comment of the De Vulgari Eloquentia*.

CHANDLER RATHFON POST 1906.

For an essay entitled *The Beginnings of the Influence of Dante in Castilian and Catalan Literature*.

ALEXANDER GUY HOLBORN SPIERS 1907.

For an essay entitled *Characteristics of the Vita Nuova*.

RALPH HAYWARD KENISTON 1909.

For an essay entitled *The Dante Tradition in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries*.

ANNUAL REPORT

The Report now issued is for the year ending May 18, 1909. During that year the Society sustained heavy losses in the death of Professor Norton, its third President, and of Professor Carpenter, for a number of years its Secretary and afterwards its Vice President.

Professor Norton, from the time of the organization of the Society, was most active in its councils, and during the sixteen years of his presidency he was the very center of its life. By his long career as a teacher, and by his published work in the translation and critical interpretation of Dante, he undoubtedly contributed more than any one else in America to the upbuilding of Dante scholarship. An essay commemorating chiefly this part of his life work was written by Mr. Thayer for the twenty-eighth annual meeting of the Society, and is printed with the present Report.

With Professor Carpenter the cultivation of Italian learning was only an avocation. But he found time, in his short and extremely busy life, to become one of the most accomplished Dante scholars among the members of the Society. What he did for the study of the poet and what that study meant in his own development is

described in an article, also published herewith, by his friend and colleague Professor Fletcher.

The usual business was transacted at the annual meeting, which was held May 18, 1909, at Professor Sheldon's residence in Cambridge. Professor Sheldon was elected President and Professor Grandgent Vice President of the Society, and Mrs. William Carver Bates was elected to the Council in place of Miss Jackson. The regular reports were received from the various officers and committees and from the editors of the Latin Concordance. At the present date of writing the Concordance is almost ready for the press, and a circular has been issued to members, asking for subscriptions at a price not to exceed six dollars a copy. These subscriptions should be sent to the Secretary, from whom members may also obtain copies of Professor Sheldon's Concordance at the original subscription price of seven dollars.

The Dante Prize was awarded in 1909 to Mr. Ralph Hayward Keniston for an essay on "The Dante Tradition in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries."

The Council are glad to publish with this Report, in addition to the papers of Mr. Thayer and Mr. Fletcher, a bibliography of American Dante scholarship from 1896 to 1908, compiled by Miss Ethel Dane Roberts, of the Wellesley College Library. Miss Roberts's article is a continuation of that published by Mr. Koch with the Fifteenth Annual Report.

FRED NORRIS ROBINSON

Secretary

JULY 1, 1910

PROFESSOR CHARLES ELIOT NORTON

By WILLIAM ROSCOE THAYER

Professor Charles Eliot Norton died in Cambridge, at Shady Hill, his birthplace and lifelong home, on October 21, 1908. He was born November 16, 1827, the son of Andrews and Katherine (Eliot) Norton; was graduated at Harvard College in the class of 1846; and after pursuing for nearly thirty years the life of scholar, citizen, and humanist, he was appointed, in 1875, Professor of the History of Art, at Harvard. This chair he resigned in 1898, owing to failing strength; but he continued for the next two or three years to offer to picked students a course in Dante. The first mention of this course appears in the Harvard catalogue for 1882-1883, but he did not give it that year nor the next. During the late winter and spring of 1886, however, Mr. Norton took Professor James Russell Lowell's place, and thenceforth, for some fifteen years, with only a few intermissions, his annual interpretation of *The Divine Comedy* was one of the chief jewels in the Harvard curriculum.

Down to 1877 Mr. Lowell had included Dante among his courses, but in that year he went on leave of absence as United States minister to Spain, whence he was transferred to London. During the late seventies and early eighties Mr. Norton used to meet a voluntary class of Dante students at his house, and for several seasons he gave public readings in English of *The Divine Comedy*. Out of these sprang his translation, published in 1891.

Mr. Norton's admiration for Dante went back to his undergraduate days, when Longfellow taught Spanish and Italian to students who chose to elect these subjects. A short visit to Italy in 1850 stimulated his interest in Italian, and during a second visit, in 1855-1856, of which he has left an attractive record in his *Notes of Travel and Study in Italy*, he perfected himself in the Italian language and in Dante lore. When he returned, his dear friend, Lowell, was installed as Smith professor, and thenceforth they pursued side by side their study of "the loftiest Poet who, like an eagle, soars above the others." A little later, in the

early sixties, Longfellow took up his translation of *The Divine Comedy*, and Lowell, Norton, and a few others gathered on Wednesday evening every week in the study at the Craigie House, listened to the new section of translation, pondered it, and gave to Longfellow suggestions, some of which, as he acknowledged, he gladly adopted. Mr. Howells, in his delightful volume, *Literary Friends and Acquaintances*, has described these meetings of the "Dante Club," to which he, then recently settled in Cambridge, was invited. "Those who were most constantly present," he says, "were Lowell and Professor Norton, but from time to time others came in, and we seldom sat down at the nine o'clock supper that followed the reading of the canto in less number than ten or twelve. The criticism, especially from the accomplished Dantists I have named, was frank and frequent."

Even before this Mr. Norton himself undertook to translate *The New Life*, the first specimens of which he printed in 1859. Thenceforward his quality as a Dantist was publicly recognized, and he promoted Dante culture through articles in the *North American Review*, of which he was a joint editor from 1862 to 1868, and later in the *Nation*. Thus he had been for many years an adept in Dante before, from his chair at Harvard, he gave such interpretations not merely of *The Divine Comedy*, but of the epoch and world out of which it arose, as have had no counterparts in America.

A few years ago I asked him for information in regard to the founding of the Dante Society, and he replied in a letter dated July 29, 1904, from which I quote:

It was, I think, in 1880 that some members of the class which I was conducting in *The Divine Comedy*, hearing me speak of the possible service which a club for the promotion of Dante studies might render, came to me to say that they wished such a club might be founded, and would be glad to do what might be in their power to give it a good start. (I recall especially John Woodbury [now secretary of the Metropolitan Park Commission] and Professor Hart as interested in the matter.) I told them that I thought that the success of the effort would depend on whether Mr. Longfellow would consent to take the presidency of the proposed society, and that I would consult with him about it. Longfellow was cordial in his approval of the scheme. He saw in it, especially, the means by which the Dante library of Harvard might be strengthened and steadily increased, and also he believed that such a society as was proposed might justify its existence by undertaking the publication of the *Comment*

on *The Divine Comedy* of Benvenuto da Imola, of which only fragments had hitherto been printed. This had long been an object of desire with him, and he and I had often talked of how to bring it about. The existence of a society, the members of which could be appealed to, to contribute to the cost of copying the manuscript of the *Comment* and to the further cost of printing it, seemed to open the way to the accomplishment of a work of the first importance to all students of *The Divine Comedy*.

Longfellow readily consented to be president of the society. A few persons were asked to become members. A meeting of them was held at the Craigie House, and Longfellow was, as usual, the most genial and delightful of hosts. I think more than one meeting was held there; bylaws were adopted, officers were elected, circulars were prepared, the aims of the society were thoroughly discussed, it was determined to send to Florence for a copy of the Benvenuto manuscript of the *Comment*, and, if I remember rightly, Longfellow undertook to defray the cost of the copy.

So was founded the Dante Society, which for nearly thirty years has persevered in the mission then laid down for it. It has called out several important studies in Dante, achieved two invaluable concordances, stimulated by its annual prize the zeal of university students for research and criticism, and contributed to the assembling in the Harvard Library of a Dante collection accessible to scholars throughout the East and second in range only to that given by Professor Willard Fiske to Cornell University. In his account of the founding, Mr. Norton, with characteristic modesty, attributes to Mr. Longfellow's coöperation the element indispensable to success; but, in fact, as the original members will be the first to testify, it was Mr. Norton himself whose active sympathy created the society and caused it to flourish as long as he lived. Mr. Longfellow served it as its first president, — a beautiful and willing figurehead, lacking neither in helpful counsel nor in practical support. On his death, in 1882, James Russell Lowell was chosen to succeed him; but Lowell was then in England, nor did he ever, after coming home in 1885, take root again in Cambridge. But his name shed a far luster, and his favor and advice sustained the prestige of the society. When he died, in 1891, Mr. Norton became president.

Thenceforward, every May, on the evening of the third Tuesday of the month, he held the annual meeting at Shady Hill, and nobody who attended one of those meetings will ever forget the way in which he presided, so informally, yet with that unflinching dignity of which he alone

seemed to have the secret. In a few penetrating sentences he would review each of the half dozen Dante books of the year; point out new work that the society might undertake; praise, in words which held no flattery, the labors of Professor Sheldon and his colleagues on the concordance; and summarize the quality of the essays handed in to compete for the Dante Prize. Until a year or two ago, — indeed, until last year, — though he seemed at each season a little frailer in body, we noticed no slackening of intellectual vigor; but last year, while his mind was as clear as ever, he asked Professor Grandgent to give an account of the new publications which he had himself been unable through illness to keep abreast of. To the end, however, the "gracious amity and unequaled intuitions," which Mr. Howells recalls of him at the meetings at Longfellow's forty years before, shone in his manner and in his criticism. Almost his last words, before the meeting of the society in 1908 broke up, were to urge that Dante be read *naturally*, for his evident meaning, and especially for his significance to us to-day, and neither as a maker of linguistic and philological puzzles, nor as a conscious exploiter of recondite theories.

In 1891 Professor Norton published his prose translation of *The Divine Comedy*, — a work which at once took its place as the best. It is hardly likely to be superseded, for metrical translators of Dante sacrifice too much of his meaning in order to give us a metrical residue which in nowise corresponds to his *terza rima*. It is significant that the best metrical version in English, Longfellow's, in hendecasyllabic blank verse, comes nearest to prose. Readers to whom the originals of the few world masterpieces are inaccessible will more and more resort to the best prose renderings. Among these Norton's *Divine Comedy* unquestionably belongs. To understand the care with which he worked, one should compare the first edition of his translation with the last. In the intervening ten years he literally went over every word afresh, weighed every phrase, listened to every new suggestion, and made even commas serve instead of exegesis. His critical faculty was so delicate and so exacting that he was satisfied with nothing short of perfection in his own writing. "It is the final thumb-nail touches," he used to say to me, "that count."

Besides his translation of *The Divine Comedy* he brought out a revision of *The New Life*, and he contributed to Warner's Library a monograph, unfortunately too brief, on Dante's career and genius. The latter fragment

was compiled in part from lectures delivered by him on the Turnbull Foundation at Baltimore. He could never be persuaded to amplify them into a volume which should transmit to posterity the interpretation and criticism of the foremost English-speaking Dantist of his time.

I call Mr. Norton the foremost Dantist advisedly, for I had the rare privilege of being a pupil both of him and of Lowell, whom Norton himself called his master. But Lowell was never the minute and indefatigable searcher of texts that Norton was; and Lowell never felt Dante as Norton felt him. Lowell's essay will long deserve to be read, not only because it is one of the best literary essays produced in America, but also because in its wit, in its flashes of insight, in its occasional waywardness, and in its Romanticist exuberance, it is characteristic of his brilliant talents. But to read Dante with Mr. Norton was almost an act of worship. There was in his voice something wonderfully stirring and wholly incommunicable. As he reached a favorite passage his face became radiant and his tones more tender. He explained fully from every side, —verbal, textual, literary, spiritual; and even when he did not pause to suggest the parallel between Dante's examples and our modern instances, he left no doubt of their pertinence to ourselves. Yet with all this there was no hint of preaching, no attempt, so common among German expounders, to twist Dante's text to fit a theory.

Looking back upon those hours of high instruction, I find it hard to say whether the final impression Mr. Norton's illumination of *The Divine Comedy* made upon me concerned the spiritual significance or the supreme beauty of the poem. That one should blend into the other was, after all, what he intended, for he never divorced the spiritual from the beautiful. If he held that those who would render Beauty didactic surely destroy her charm, he knew also the origin and the function of Art-for-Art's-sake Beauty. In his interpretation of Dante he had one immense advantage which neither Lowell nor any other English-speaking Dantist has possessed: he had a specialist's knowledge of medieval art. So the thirteenth century lived for him not merely in its poetry, theology, and chronicles, but in its paintings and statues, in its churches and town halls, in its palaces and dwellings. These arts, needless to say, had then an extraordinary representative value which they do not possess at all to-day; and only he who knows them intimately can compass the whole circle of the experience and the ideals of that world of which *The Divine*

Comedy is the supreme expression in language. Mr. Norton had this erudition, but, as was his wont, he never gave it out as mere erudition; he always vitalized it by his sympathy, and so endued it with immediate human interest. He scorned loose thinking; he despised inaccuracy or misstatement. His critical keenness made him instinctively take care to be sure of his facts, but he unconsciously presented his facts with charm, as Nature hides pollen or seeds in her flowers.

Let us hope that this society which he founded, this outpost of culture which he cherished for nearly thirty years, will continue in the work he desired for it. He felt, as every one must feel who has drawn close to Dante, that it is of immense importance that the study of *The Divine Comedy* should be promoted. The contrast it sets up between our transitional society and that of thirteenth-century Italy; its embodiment of what was for more than a thousand years the religion of Christendom; the pure delight of it as poetry; and the fact that, better than any other literary masterpiece, it teaches the supreme knowledge, — how a man may make himself eternal; these are some of the reasons, if reasons be required, for dedicating ourselves to the perpetuation of Dante's epic. And as long as any of us who knew Charles Eliot Norton survive, we shall feel that his benign influence accompanies us and bids us Godspeed.

GEORGE RICE CARPENTER

By JEFFERSON BUTLER FLETCHER

By the death of George Rice Carpenter, which took place at his home in New York City on April 8, 1909, the Dante Society has lost one of its most devoted and distinguished members. While an undergraduate at Harvard University, Carpenter, under the inspiring guidance of Professor Norton, acquired an enthusiasm for the poetry of Dante which lasted throughout his life. Heavily burdened as he became with manifold intellectual and practical obligations, he never allowed a year to pass without rereading *The Divine Comedy*; and to the end he kept himself intelligently informed upon all essential scholarship touching Dante. Although in later years he published nothing on Italian literature, modestly deprecating his attainments in that field, many a friend and fellow student will bear grateful witness to the stimulating and clarifying ideas which discussion on the subject always elicited from him. Yet it was less as a scholar than as a disciple that Carpenter felt towards the great Florentine. He was most concerned to cut through the crust of accidental mediæval convention and of alien metaphysical theory to Dante's essential and, if I may so say, pragmatic thought and feeling, and to square Dante's answer to the riddle of life, so simplified, with his own. And fundamental sympathy there was between the mediæval master and the modern pupil. Born on the rugged Labrador coast of missionary parents, upheld through an unresting life of work by a rigid sense of duty, ever resolutely subduing to cool reasonableness and practical efficiency a temperament naturally wayward and passionate, with the imagination of a poet, dreaming dreams, this gentle unpretentious teacher, more and more as he grew with the years, came, for those who knew him best, to grow one in spirit with the master whom he loved. For him, as for that master, renunciation, as no ascetic penance but for self-effacing service, revealed itself as the secret of highest living. Puritan-mystic, he also might have said at the end:

All'alta fantasia qui mancò possa :
 ma già volgeva il mio disiro e il velle,
 sì come ruota che ògualmente è mossa,
 L'Amor che muove il sole e l'altre stelle.

If Dante taught, or powerfully helped teach, Carpenter the ideal of renunciation, it may truly be said that one of the greatest renuncements of Carpenter's life was that of the study of Dante as a vocational end. He was always dreaming of a time when he might conscientiously withdraw from undergraduate teaching and academic administration enough to devote himself again seriously to Dante scholarship. But others — who shall say how wisely? — decided for him his greater serviceableness, and he always ended by yielding his own inclination. That inclination was indeed strong. He indulged it so far as he dared — and more than he should have dared — in hours stolen not indeed from his duties but from what ought to have been his rest. Within a month of his death he had concocted a scheme by which a slight increase of pressure all along the line was to yield an extra hour a day for a serious study of mediæval Italian poetry. Alas, he had sat on the safety valve too long.

Carpenter's actual contribution to our knowledge of Dante and his times thus came to be rather a fair promise than, in view of his wide learning and rare sympathy, a ripe fulfillment. His beginning indeed was brilliant. In the spring of 1888 he won the prize offered by this society with an essay entitled *The Episode of the Donna Pictosa, being an Attempt to reconcile the Statements in the Vita Nuova and the Convito concerning Dante's Life in the Years after the Death of Beatrice and before the Beginning of the Divina Commedia*. Of this essay an eminent Italian Dante scholar has written, "Più che un semplice saggio, ella è questa una dotta dissertazione che molto onora il Carpenter." The praise was certainly merited. Young Carpenter — he was only twenty-five — cut through the tangles of conflicting evidence and precarious surmise which had gathered about this crucial period of Dante's life with a clearness of vision and a sureness of touch only too rare among veteran scholars. And his argument, whether or no its conclusions be accepted, is one to be reckoned with still.

The essay at once won its author prominence in this society, which he served as secretary and treasurer from 1890 to 1893, and as vice president from 1893 to his voluntary retirement in 1904. He was

intrusted with the editing of the important *Documents concerning Dante's Public Life*, published in the tenth and eleventh annual reports of the society (1891-1892); and of C. S. Latham's translation of *Dante's Eleven Letters* (1891). During the winter of 1892-1893 he delivered a course of lectures at the Lowell Institute in Boston on early Italian lyric poetry. The substance of these he later, at Columbia University, incorporated into a course on the general development of European lyric poetry. For the *Columbia Literary Monthly*, April, 1895, he wrote on Lorenzo da Ponte, the earliest critic of Dante in America. In 1900 he translated and edited, for the Grolier Club of New York City, Boccaccio's *Life of Dante*.

Such, apart from occasional reviews of Italian books, is the sum of Carpenter's actual enunciation on Dante and on Italian literature, tantalizingly meager when we think what he, given opportunity, might have done. Yet if he was able to write but little of Dante, the influence of Dante is, I think, not obscurely felt in all his other writings and in his teaching. His style was austere direct and simple. Although generously prompt to probe through others' confused or imperfect expression of their underlying ideas, he refused to himself the privilege of being obscure. His final utterance was so simple, so natural, as to seem — to the common mind — commonplace; but the better informed his reader, the deeper and richer appeared the meaning. Yet with this instinct for clarity, this solicitude for filtering his thought into complete transparency, he combined an ever-present sense of realities, which, by taking thought however honestly and earnestly, we can but realize as through a glass darkly. In the sense that Dante was a mystic, he was a mystic. It was the mystic in him that drew him as a youth to the Hebrew writers, to Arabic, and to Dante, that gave him as a man a clew to the deeper things in Walt Whitman's poetry. It was the mystic in him, disciple of Dante, that made his beautiful clearness of thought placid and deep, never superficial or wholly seen through, like the clearness of shoal waters. Deeply though reticently religious, he lived the faith which Dante defines:

Fede è sustanzia di cose sperate,
ed argomento delle non parventi.



AMERICAN DANTE BIBLIOGRAPHY

May, 1896—May, 1908

(Supplementing the American Dante Bibliography compiled by T. W. Koch and published in the Fifteenth Annual Report of the Dante Society.)

COMPILED BY ETHEL DANE ROBERTS

NOTE. In continuing the bibliography begun by Mr. Koch I have followed in the main the lines laid down by him, with certain exceptions. I have made no attempt to include anything published outside of the United States, as in Canada, Mexico, or South America; consequently I have not included articles by or about American writers in foreign periodicals. I have chosen to enter reviews of books under the name of the reviewer when obtainable, whether the books reviewed were of American or foreign origin. Unsigned reviews I have noted under the book in question. I can hardly hope, however, to have included every unsigned review that has appeared.

As far as newspaper material is concerned, I have included all that I have found entered in the Cornell and Harvard catalogues and in the foreign bibliographies consulted, together with any other references of the sort that have come to my notice. I have made no systematic attempt to go farther than this.

With these reservations I have endeavored to include everything published in the United States since Mr. Koch's bibliography was printed. I am, of course, particularly indebted to the catalogue of the Dante collection at Cornell and to the various lists published by the Dante Society, which include the catalogue of the Harvard collection.

ETHEL DANE ROBERTS

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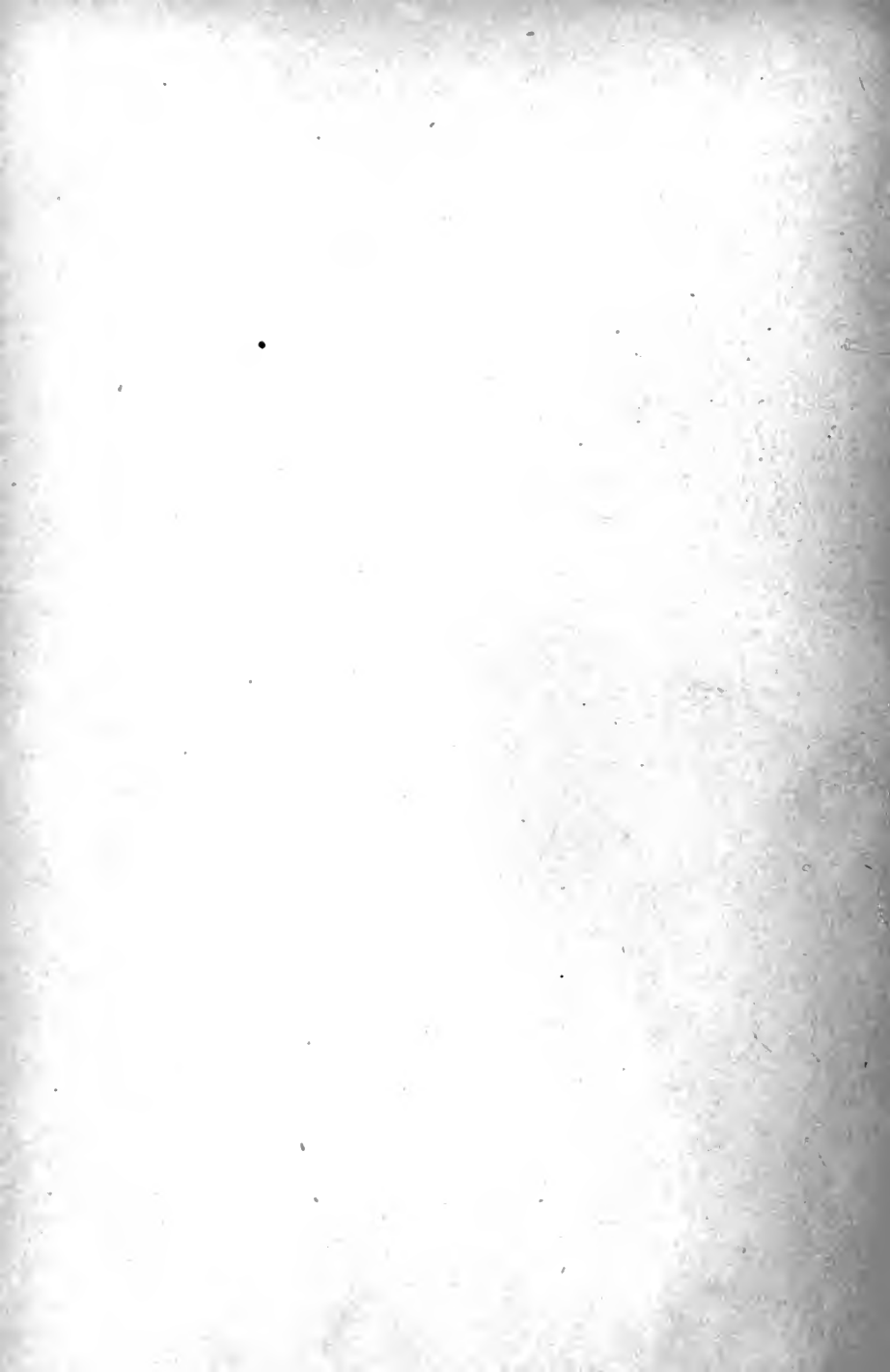
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TWENTY-NINTH

ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

DANTE SOCIETY

(CAMBRIDGE, MASS.)

1910

ACCOMPANYING PAPERS

METHODS IN MAKING A CONCORDANCE

By Ernest H. Wilkins

THE LATIN CONCORDANCE OF DANTE AND THE GENUINENESS
OF CERTAIN OF HIS LATIN WORKS

By Edward Kennard Rand

TWO NOTES ON THE *COMMEDIA*

By Charles Hall Grandgent

AN UNRECORDED SEVENTEENTH CENTURY VERSION OF
THE *VITA DI DANTE* OF LEONARDO BRUNI

By Paget Toynbee

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BOSTON

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1912

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STATEMENT OF ACCOUNTS

(From May 18, 1909, to May 17, 1910)

Balance in the hands of the Treasurer, May		
18, 1909	\$861.98	
Membership fees till May 17, 1910	460.04	
Copyrights, etc.	<u>49.89</u>	\$1371.91
Paid Messrs. Ginn and Company	\$284.51	
Paid the Treasurer of Harvard College	100.00	
Refunded from sales of the Fay Concordance	48.00	
Paid for clerical work on the Twenty-Seventh		
Report	15.00	
Paid for clerical work on the Latin Concordance	187.02	
Printing, postage, etc.	8.22	
Balance in the hands of the Treasurer, May		
17, 1910	<u>729.16</u>	\$1371.91

BY-LAWS

1. This Society shall be called the DANTE SOCIETY. Its object shall be the encouragement of the study of the Life and Works of Dante.

2. Any person desirous to become a member of this Society may do so by signifying his or her wish in writing to the Secretary, and by the payment of an annual fee of five dollars.

3. An Annual Meeting for the election of officers shall be held at Cambridge on the third Tuesday of May, of which due notice shall be given to the members by the Secretary.

4. Special meetings may be held at any time appointed by vote of the members at the Annual Meeting, or by call from the President and Secretary.

5. The officers shall be a President, a Vice President, a Secretary and Treasurer, and a Librarian, who, together with three members thereto chosen, shall form the Council of the Society. All these officers shall be chosen at the Annual Meeting, and their term of service shall be for one year, or until their successors are elected. Vacancies in the Council shall be filled for the remainder of the year by the Council.

6. The President, or, in his absence, the Vice President, or, in the absence of both, any member of the Council, shall preside at all meetings of the Society and of the Council.

7. The Secretary and Treasurer shall keep a record of the meetings of the Society and of the Council, shall collect and receive all dues, and keep accounts of the income and expenditure of the Society, shall give notice of meetings, and shall perform all other duties appropriate to his office.

8. The Council shall hold meetings at such times as it may appoint, shall determine on the use to be made of the income of

the Society, shall endeavor to promote the special objects of the Society in such ways as may seem most appropriate, and shall make an annual report of their proceedings, including a full statement of accounts, at each Annual Meeting. This report shall be made in print for distribution to the members.

9. No officer of the Society shall be competent to contract debts in the name of the Society, and no expenditure shall be made without a vote of the Council.

10. A majority of the Council shall form a quorum for the transaction of business.

11. Any person distinguished for his interest in the purposes of the Society, or who has rendered it valuable service, may be chosen an Honorary Member at any regular meeting of the Society, and shall be entitled to all its privileges without annual assessment.

12. The preceding rules may be changed at any time by unanimous vote of the Council.

THE DANTE PRIZE

The Society offers an annual prize of one hundred dollars for the best essay by a student in any department of Harvard University, or by a graduate of not more than three years' standing, on a subject drawn from the life or works of Dante. The competition is open to students and graduates of similar standing of any college or university in the United States.

For the year 1910-1911 the following subjects were proposed :

1. *A study of the vocabulary of Dante's Lyrics.*
2. *The classification of Dante's Miscellaneous Lyrics.*
3. *The influence of Boethius on the Vita Nuova and the Convito.*
4. *A discussion of the authorship of Il Fiore.*
5. *A study of Dante's influence upon English literature (or upon any single author or period).*
6. *The relation of Dante's theological doctrines to the present teachings of the Church of Rome.*
7. *The relation of modern scientific discovery to Dante's conception of the divine order of the universe.*
8. *The main reasons for the increase of interest in the Divina Commedia during the past fifty years.*
9. *Dante and Cecco d'Ascoli.*
10. *A study of the decline of Dante's influence in Italy in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.*
11. *Modern traits in Dante.*
12. *Dante in the anecdotic literature of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.*
13. *The influence of Guido Cavalcanti on Dante.*
14. *A criticism of Torraca's edition of the Divina Commedia.*

Essays must be deposited with the Dean of Harvard College, Cambridge, Mass., on or before the first day of May.

Essayists are at liberty to write on any one of the subjects which have been proposed in the years during which the Dante Prize has been offered, or to propose new subjects for the approval of the Council of the Society.

On the title-page must be written an assumed name and a statement of the writer's standing, i.e. whether he is a graduate or an undergraduate (and of what college or university); if he is an undergraduate, to what class he belongs, and to what department of the college or university. Under cover with the essay must be sent a sealed letter containing the true name and address of the writer, and superscribed with his assumed name.

The essays must be written upon letter paper, of good quality, of the quarto size, with a margin of not less than one inch at the top, at the bottom, and on each side, so that they may be bound up without injury to the writing. The sheets on which the essay is written must be securely stitched together.

The judges of the essays are a committee of the Dante Society.

In case the judges decide that no essay submitted to them deserves the full prize, they are at liberty to award one or two prizes of fifty dollars, or to award no prize.

The Dante Society has the privilege of retaining and depositing in the Dante Collection of the Harvard College Library any or all essays offered in competition for the Dante Prize, whether successful or not.

Since its establishment the Dante Prize (in full or in part) has been awarded to the following persons:

HEINRICH CONRAD BIERWIRTH 1887.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Obligations to the Schoolmen, especially to Thomas Aquinas*.

GEORGE RICE CARPENTER 1888.

For an essay entitled *The Interpretation and Reconciliation of the Different Accounts of his Experiences after the Death of Beatrice, given by Dante in the Vita Nuova and the Convito*.

CHARLES STERRETT LATHAM 1890.

For an essay entitled *A Translation into English of Dante's Letters, with Explanatory and Historical Comments*.

KENNETH MCKENZIE 1894.

For an essay entitled *The Rise of the Dolce Stil Nuovo*.

JEREMIAH DENIS MATTHIAS FORD 1895.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Influence upon Spanish Literature during the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries*.

ANNETTE FISKE 1897.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Obligations to Old French and Provençal Lyric Poetry*.

ARTHUR NEWTON PEASLEE 1900.

For an essay entitled *A Metrical Rhyming Translation of the Three Canzoni of the Convito*.

HENRY LATIMER SEAVER 1901.

For an essay entitled *A Translation of the Canzoni in the Convito*.

ALAIN CAMPBELL WHITE 1902.

The Latham Prize for an essay entitled *A Translation of the Quaestio de Aqua et Terra, and a Discussion of its Authenticity*.

ALPHONSO DE SALVIO 1902.

For an essay entitled *The Verse Endings in the Divina Commedia in which Dante has made "li vocaboli dire nelle sue rime altro che quello ch' erano appo gli altri dicatori usati di sprimere."*

FRITZ HAGENS 1903.

For an essay entitled *A Critical Comment of the De Vulgari Eloquentia*.

CHANDLER RATHFON POST 1906.

For an essay entitled *The Beginnings of the Influence of Dante in Castilian and Catalan Literature*.

ALEXANDER GUY HOLBORN SPIERS 1907.

For an essay entitled *Characteristics of the Vita Nuova*.

RALPH HAYWARD KENISTON 1909.

For an essay entitled *The Dante Tradition in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries*.

ANNUAL REPORT

The twenty-ninth annual meeting of the Society was held on Tuesday evening, May 17, 1910, at the residence of Professor Sheldon, in Cambridge. The usual reports of officers and committees were presented, and other routine business was transacted. All the officers were reëlected for the ensuing year.

There was some discussion of the advisability of holding, from time to time, special meetings of the Society, and the matter was referred to the Council with a favorable recommendation. During the following year one such special meeting was held, by invitation of Mrs. Gardner, at Fenway Court. Professor Grandgent read a portion of the address he delivered in 1910 in Or San Michele, in Florence, and an opportunity was given to members to examine Mrs. Gardner's Dante collection.

The editors of the Latin Concordance, at the meeting in May, 1910, were able to report that the work was nearly ready for the press. At the present date of writing, the printing is far advanced, and it is expected that copies will be ready for distribution in the winter. Members who have not yet subscribed for the volume may still send their subscriptions to the Secretary, who can also supply copies of Professor Sheldon's Concordance, to members only, for the original subscription price of seven dollars.

Of the papers printed with the present Report, two have reference to the new Concordance and are contributed by the editors. Dr. Wilkins explains the method of its compilation, and Professor Rand, in an essay, part of which he read at the annual meeting in 1910, discusses the evidence furnished by the Concordance on questions of authorship and chronology. Professor Grandgent contributes explanatory notes on the Divine Comedy, and Dr. Toynbee publishes a version, hitherto not examined or discussed, of Bruni's lives of Dante and Petrarch.

FRED NORRIS ROBINSON

Secretary

AUGUST 20, 1911

METHODS IN MAKING A CONCORDANCE

The editors of the concordance to the Latin works of Dante have come to the end of their task with a strong belief in the value of concordances, an entire willingness to leave to others the carrying on of the good work, and a certain stock of opinions as to methods in concordance-making which it seems desirable to record here for the possible benefit of future laborers.

With regard to the functions proper to a concordance we are entirely in agreement with the opinions expressed by Professor McKenzie in a recent report of this society: ¹ a concordance may enable one who has in mind part or all of a phrase to ascertain readily the whole phrase and its location; it may serve as a register of the author's linguistic usage; and it may provide a full index of the subjects treated in the work or works covered. The value of the second function is illustrated in the accompanying article by Professor Rand. The value of the third may be instanced by the control of Dante's ideas as to the freedom of the will afforded by the series of articles *liber* to *libertate* in the three Dante concordances.

Among the problems best decided before the actual beginning of registration is that as to whether the several forms of an inflected word shall be presented in different groups or under a single heading: for example, whether the forms *aberat*, *abesse*, *absit*, and *absum* shall have each a separate article, or be grouped all under *absum*. Professor Fay in the *Concordance of the Divina Commedia* followed the first method; Professor Sheldon, in the concordance to Dante's minor Italian works, the second. We hold strongly with Professor Sheldon and Professor McKenzie ² for the second method. It is an open question whether the first or second method better serves the first of the three concordance functions, and the second and third functions are much better served by the second method.

¹ *Means and End in making a Concordance*, in the *Twenty-fifth Annual Report of the Dante Society* (for 1906), p. 26.

² See pp. 35-40 of the article referred to.

Most words in a concordance have a line of context given for each occurrence. Such treatment is, however, obviously inappropriate for the common pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and certain other particles. The question as to what words shall receive less than complete treatment, and as to the extent and manner of treatment to be accorded them, is a difficult one. Full context should be given for all words which a user of the concordance might select as means of identification of a given passage, and for all words of any rarity in the work or works treated. For words of merely linguistic interest, in general, a complete series of references without context should be given. Such words, however, often assume a special importance, as for example *quia* in "State contenti, umana gente, al *quia*" (*Purgatorio* iii. 37), or in "Scientes *quia* rationale animal homo est" (*De vulgari eloquentia* ii. 10. 1). Such occurrences should have full context. To the occurrences thus allowed full context may well be added a few others typical of the author's general use of the word. Other occurrences of distinct but minor linguistic interest, for which brief context is sufficient, may well be registered in parentheses following the line references. This treatment is especially appropriate for favorite combinations of particles and for brief stock phrases. A series of articles containing such parentheses will afford intimate acquaintance with the author's linguistic individuality. Words of this type should therefore have in the concordance two divisions: a first division consisting of a series of occurrences with full context, and a second division consisting of a series of line references, some of which are followed by parentheses. A very few words, finally, are of such frequent occurrence that a student investigating their usage would find a list of references of no advantage. For these words occurrences of special importance should be registered, and the others disregarded. The only words so treated in our concordance are *et*, the relative *qui*, and *sum*. An initial decision as to which words shall receive which treatment can hardly be more than tentative. It should err rather by assigning too many than too few to the class not receiving full context, and rather by assigning too few than too many to the class of those to be in general disregarded.

The propriety of according treatment to direct quotations appearing in the work or works in question has been doubted. We feel that they

should be treated. Quotations in indirect discourse or in partial paraphrase are necessarily treated; it seems illogical not to extend the same treatment to direct quotations. Moreover, a user of the concordance might very possibly desire to determine the form or location of a quotation, and the content of a quotation often adds to our knowledge of the author's knowledge of a given subject, or illuminates his linguistic usage. In the registration of words occurring in a direct quotation the fact of such occurrence should in some way be noted. In the case of words having full context, the quotation marks should be retained as in the text. In the case of words for which references only are given, the line reference in question may be included in quotation marks.

The cards for use in the preparation of a concordance should be plain rather than ruled, and about six inches by two inches in size. Before the actual work of registration is begun, a rough estimate of the number of words in each chapter (or equivalent subdivision) should be made; then for each chapter a number of cards equal to the estimated number of words in that chapter should be stamped in the lower left-hand corner with a reference consisting of the abbreviated name of the work (if more than one work is treated), the book or part, and the chapter: for example, for the first chapter of the *De vulgari eloquentia* 200 cards should be stamped *V.E.* i. 1. This work, of course, may be done by an assistant without special knowledge.

Next, each word in the text (except the very few that are to be disregarded) should be registered on a card by writing in the upper left-hand corner the word in question in its proper index form (nominative singular, present infinitive, or present indicative first singular, as the case may be), and adding to the stamped book and chapter reference in the lower left-hand corner the proper line reference. This work may be done by an assistant who writes a clear hand and has enough linguistic knowledge to reduce the words to the proper index form. The accuracy and completeness of the work thus done should then be verified. It will prove more economical, both in time and in mental energy, to verify first the index forms on the whole series of cards and then the line references on the whole series of cards, than to verify card by card first with regard to the index form and second with regard to the line reference. This verification should be done by two persons, one reading from the text, the other handling the cards.

The next step should be, in our opinion, the insertion of the context upon all cards except those for words to which it has been tentatively decided to accord less than complete treatment. The writing of the contexts while the cards are in textual order rather than after alphabetization makes it possible to deal once for all with particular difficulties in thought and in syntax, and facilitates consistency in the treatment of similarly conditioned words.

The context for a single occurrence should not be so long as to run over one line in the printed concordance. A maximum length must be decided upon: with us it was 64 letters, — roughly, a line and a half of the Oxford Dante. It is desirable that all contexts should approach fairly closely the maximum length, since, if they do, the use of leaders on the printed page will be unnecessary, and the right-hand edge of the column of contexts will be agreeably even. In case a word occurs twice within a passage which is twice the length of the standard context passage, we think it wise, in most cases, to make the context for the two occurrences continuous, indenting the second line of it, rather than to divide the passage into two separate contexts.

In the writing of contexts, the use of omission dots is often necessary, but should be limited as strictly as possible, since the user of the concordance, if confronted with a context containing omission dots, is likely to have the fear that the portion of text omitted may contain something which concerns him. It will save much space to denote omission not by three dots but by two, as in the Oxford English Dictionary and in Mr. Rayner Storr's *Concordance to the De Imitatione Christi*.¹

We think it unwise to rely upon assistants, however competent, to do the original writing of the contexts. Before the cards for our concordance were given into our hands, nearly all the contexts had been written out, some fifty assistants sharing the work. With all due appreciation of the generosity with which this work was done, we judge that it cost us more time and energy to correct, standardize, and revise the work thus presented, than it would have taken to do the work ourselves in the first place. If assistants are to be employed at all for the writing of contexts, it should be only after the editors have done enough of the work to have established certain well-defined principles of context selection; and even so, the assistant should work under the direct supervision of an editor.

¹ Oxford, 1910.

If principles of context selection change considerably in the course of the work, as is very likely to be the case, a revision of the contexts should follow immediately upon the completion of their original registration.

In the alphabetization, colored cards with projecting caps should be used to head the several articles, each colored card having written upon the cap the word in question in its index form.

Immediately after alphabetization, the words to which it was tentatively decided to accord less than complete treatment should be studied; final decision should be reached as to which of these words, if any, should be accorded full treatment; and, in the case of the remaining words, decision should be reached as to which occurrences should be accorded full context, which accorded parenthetical treatment, and which indicated by reference only.

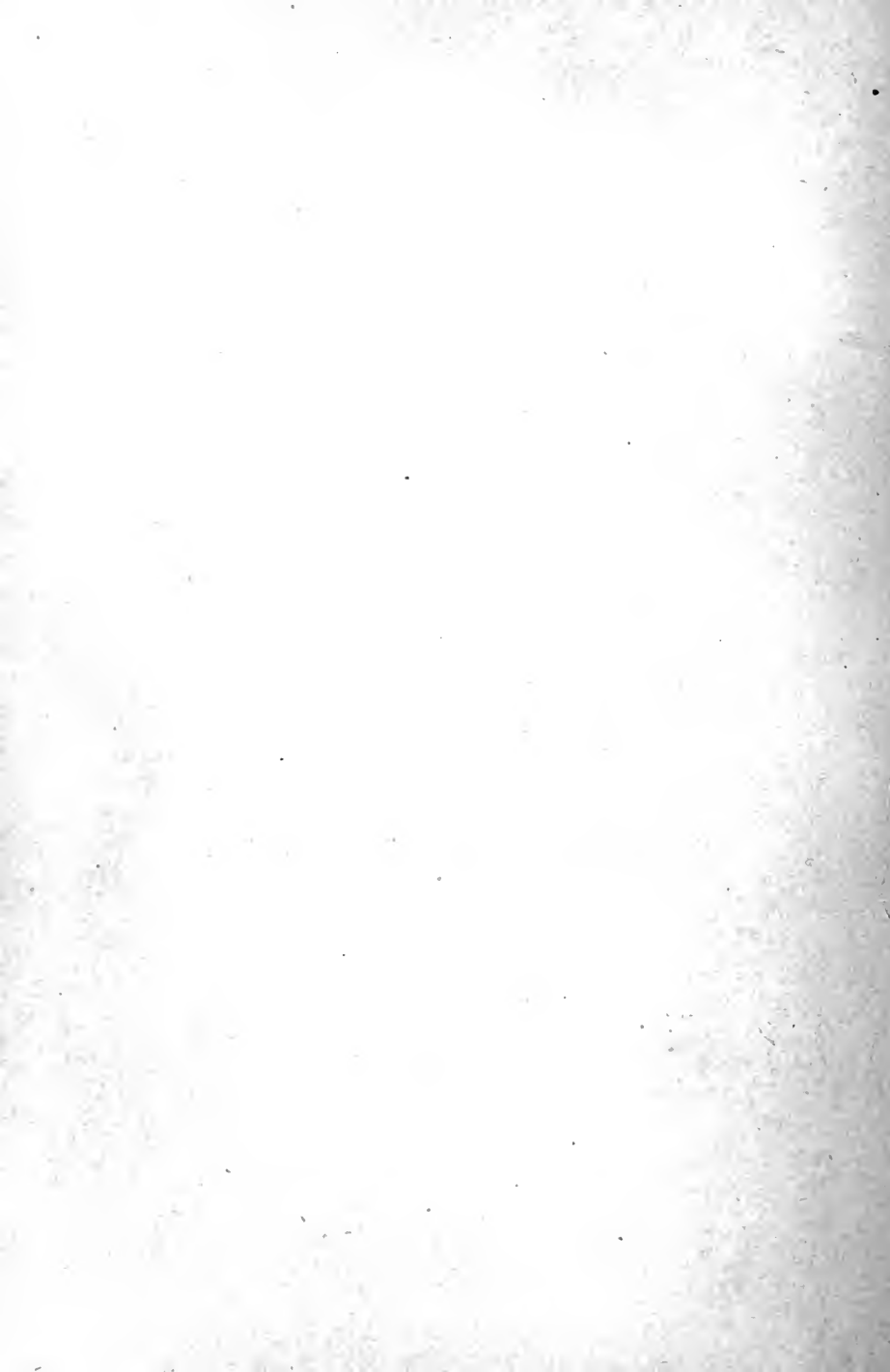
The concordance should then be typewritten on the largest available size of typewriter paper. This expense we think fully justified: it insures the existence of the concordance in duplicate, it affords a clear copy for the typesetter, and it enables the editors to standardize the several articles and to anticipate the look of the printed page far better than can be done with cards.

The first context of each article should be typewritten upon the same line as the caption of the article, since this arrangement is necessary on the printed page in order to avoid expensive waste of space. In case the combined length of a caption and an initial context is so great as to make the context run over the line, the length of the context should be reduced in the final revision referred to below.

The typewriting once done, a careful verification of its accuracy should follow, one person reading from the cards and another following the typewriting, or vice versa. This work can be done by competent assistants.

There should then follow a final revision of the concordance, with the particular object of attaining consistency in treatment within each article.

E. H. WILKINS



THE LATIN CONCORDANCE OF DANTE AND THE GENUINENESS OF CERTAIN OF HIS LATIN WORKS

Recent scholarship is surely tending to the view that *Epistola* x and the *Quaestio de Aqua et Terra* are genuine works of Dante. I need not repeat the arguments set forth by Moore, Shadwell, White, Boffito, Biagi, and others; I wish to confirm them, so far as may be, by an appeal to the Concordance of Dante's Latin works which Dr. Wilkins and I are about to publish. Further, I should like to show that the evidence there accessible fits better with the theory that the *De Vulgari Eloquentia* (= *V.E.*), *Epistola* x (= *Ep.* x), *Quaestio de Aqua et Terra* (= *A.T.*), *De Monarchia* (= *M.*), were written in the order indicated than in any other order. On different grounds, other scholars have reached the same conclusion. For instance, — I am attempting no elaborate bibliography here, — Wicksteed and Howell¹ assign *V.E.* to the year 1304; *Ep.* x is placed by different scholars between the years 1316 and 1319;² *A.T.* must have been written shortly after the subject of the treatise was discussed by the author at Verona, January 20, 1320, which date the work itself gives us. The date of *M.* is the most mooted of all. Some put it fairly early, as Wicksteed and Howell³ who decide tentatively for 1309, but others⁴ regard it as a work of the last years of Dante's life (1318–1321). One bit of evidence on which the last-named theory depends may be corroborated, I believe, by the Concordance.

¹ *A Translation of the Latin Works of Dante*, 1904, p. 119. See also Paget Toynbee, *A Dictionary of Proper Names and Notable Matter in the Works of Dante*, Oxford, 1898, p. 214.

² See Moore, *Studies in Dante*, Third Series, 1903, p. 345.

³ *Op. cit.* p. 289.

⁴ See Scartazzini, *Enciclopedia dantesca*, 1898–1899, vol. ii, p. 1268, and also various references in Pasquale Villari, *Il "De Monarchia" di Dante Alighieri in Nuova Antologia*, vol. xlvi (1911), pp. 393 ff. Villari himself thinks books i and ii were written in 1300 and book iii after 1308. There is no support for this theory in the evidence which I offer in the present article.

In *M. i. 12. 42*, Dante apparently makes a direct reference to the *Paradiso*. He remarks:

Hoc viso, iterum manifestum esse potest, quod haec libertas, sive principium hoc totius libertatis nostrae, est maximum donum humanae naturae a Deo collatum, *sicut in Paradiso Comediae iam dixi*; quia per ipsum hic felicitamur, ut homines, per ipsum alibi felicitamur, ut *Dii*.

So read Witte's manuscripts, save that in two of them — P (saec. XIV) and F (saec. XV) — lacunæ are indicated, showing apparently that part of the reference to the *Paradiso* was erased, either by the writers of these manuscripts or, perhaps, by those of their originals. F has *sicut in . . . quia*; P has *sicut . . . commedie iam dixi, quia*.

Now Marsilio Ficino in his translation of 1467 has nothing at all for the phrase *sicut . . . dixi*, and the early editions, of which the earliest appeared in 1559, have not the clause. Witte thinks that merely the words *sicut dixi* are genuine, and he is followed by Moore. The real reference, Witte states, is not to the *Paradiso*, but to the beginning of this very chapter of the *Monarchia*, where Dante has declared *primum principium nostrae libertatis est libertas arbitrii*. But beyond the repetition of these words which state the proposition proved in the first part of the chapter, there is no reference to it in the later sentence. Nothing has been said before about "the greatest gift conferred by God on man," to which sentiment the *sicut dixi* applies. If now we turn to *Paradiso v. 19 ff.*, we find an unmistakable connection.

Lo maggior don, che Dio per sua larghezza
Fesse creando, ed alla sua bontate
Più conformato, e quel ch' ei più apprezza,
Fu della volontà la libertate,
Di che le creature intelligenti
E tutte e sole furo e son dotate.

This much is cited by Witte. Perhaps we may go a bit further and see in the concluding clause of the Latin passage, *quia . . . alibi felicitamur, ut Dii*, an allusion to the last part of the same canto, where Beatrice and Dante come upon a thousand radiant beings replete with divine love, and Beatrice tells him to "Speak, speak securely and trust even as to *gods*." If Dante has not in mind this passage in the *Paradiso*, which is altogether apposite, his reference is most puzzling; for there is no other passage which is apposite, certainly none in *M.*

If Witte wanted to omit anything, he should have cast out the entire clause, *sicut . . . dixi*, as Ficino and the early editors did. But why did they? Not necessarily because prompted thereto by critical or hypercritical acumen. They both might well have had manuscripts in which some such mutilation had occurred as we find in F and P. Unable to make any meaning out of the remnant of the clause, they left it out entirely. That would be a critical procedure quite in keeping with the practice of those times. That the omission in the manuscripts was due to accident rather than hypercriticism is shown by its fragmentary nature. I submit, therefore, that it is incumbent upon us to accept this reference at its face value until it has been absolutely proved worthless. That, however, is not the case. I will not deny that the problem needs further investigation and that, in particular, the relation of the different manuscripts to one another should be fixed. As F and P seem clearly related elsewhere, I am tempted to trace their different mutilations of the *sicut . . . dixi* clause to an original mutilation, or obscurity, in their common archetype, from which the manuscripts used for the *editio princeps* and likewise for Ficino's translation descended. But, again, this part of the subject demands fresh treatment.

Meanwhile, let us appeal to the Concordance to see if there is any reason why Dante could not have said *sicut in Paradiso Comediae iam dixi*. We find, first of all, that he uses a *sicut* clause of this sort not infrequently in all the four works (*V.E.*, *Ep.* x, *A.T.*, *M.*), when referring to the works of another writer. Thus:

sicut dicit Thomas in tertio suo contra Gentiles (M. ii. 4. 5); sicut dixit Philosophus in secundo Metaphysicorum (Ep. x. 101).

Further, he uses the phrase in referring to his own works, or at least to the work in which the phrase appears:

Sicut inferius ostendimus (V.E. i. 8. 24); sicut inferius ostendimus (V.E. i. 12. 55); sicut dictum est (V.E. i. 14. 21); sicut in superioribus est peractum (M. iii. 2. 2).

Now I will not deny that an interpolator might notice this habit of Dante's and observe it in his own interpolation, or that, unconscious of Dante's usage, he might have happened to adopt it. But I am specially interested to note that the phrase is *sicut . . . dixi*, and not the plural, *sicut . . . diximus*. If it were the latter, there would be a distinct

probability that the words are spurious. How so, one may ask, when we have just observed the plural in two passages from the *V.E.*? The facts are as follows, and they may be seen in the Concordance under *nos*, *ego*, *noster*, and *meus*.

In *V.E.* the word *ego* occurs just once, and does not refer to Dante. He uses it in an illustration: *ut: Piget me cunctis pietate maiore*, etc. (*V.E.* ii. 6. 36). But Dante tells us about himself not infrequently in *V.E.* He uses for the purpose the plural *nos*, which occurs thirty-eight times. One of these instances is a quotation. In some of the others the word has a general sense, "we men in general," and sometimes includes both the author and his readers, whom he has invited to join him in an imaginary hunt for the *vulgare illustre*. But in about twenty cases it refers clearly to Dante himself. A specially good illustration is *Nos cui mundus est patria* (i. 6. 17), where the plural *nos* is followed by the singular relative. The same holds true for *noster*, while *meus* does not occur at all. The same holds true for *dico*, for which he always has *dicimus*. Other verbs in the first person are plural, though there may be an exception or two besides the rather striking one I have noticed:

Nec dubitandum reor modo in eo quod diximus temporum, sed potius opinamur tenendum (*V.E.* i. 9. 60).

Now in all his other works, — and I think that however their order be determined, few would object to calling them later than *V.E.*, — there is only *one* occurrence of this usage, i.e. *Ep.* x. 85:

Sed zelus gloriae vestrae, quam sitio, nostrum parvipendens ("But zeal for your glory [i.e. that of Can Grande], for which I thirst, recking little of my own.")

Nos and *noster* occur elsewhere in *Ep.* x, *A.T.*, and *M.*, but always in the general, never in the special, sense. Thus:

Hoc etiam est insinuat nobis in Matthaeo ("We are given to understand," *Ep.* x. 548); *in die Solis . . . quem . . . Salvator . . . nobis innuit venerandum* (*A.T.* 24. 19); *licet ostensa sit nobis haec ab humana ratione, quae per philosophus nobis innouit* (*M.* iii. 16. 65, 66).

When Dante wishes to say "I" in his later works, he used *ego*, though that word and *meus* are used very rarely in all of them, apart from quotations, which of course do not concern us here. So though I have not proved that Dante must have written the *sicut . . . dixi* clause, I could at

least congratulate an interpolator on not having said *sicut . . . diximus*. Surely the burden of proof lies altogether on those who would expunge the words from the text, and as no real proof has appeared, we have a right to draw from the words the chronological inferences which they contain.

I will assume, then, that the *Monarchia* was written in Dante's later period, at least after the fifth canto of the *Paradiso* was written. Other scholars have placed it there on other grounds, particularly for various connections with the subject matter of the *Paradiso*; if it is put as late as this, nothing compels us to place it before rather than after *A.T.* I am inclined to place it after, for a reason that will later appear, and thus to regard it as the last of all Dante's works.

Supposing, then, as others have done, that *V.E.*, *Ep. x*, *A.T.*, and *M.* were written in the order in which I have named them, I will appeal to various stylistic peculiarities not to prove this order, but to show at least that it is plausible. Proof is impossible. An array of peculiarities common to *A.T.* and *M.* does not necessarily prove that the two treatises were written in the same period; these peculiarities may depend merely on the nature of the subject treated. But it is at least possible that similar habits of mind resulting in similar traits of expression were not far separated in point of time. I think I can show, that, granting the chronological order assumed by others, the various stylistic evidence makes for that order rather than any other; and whatever value this point of the discussion may have, I am confident that the material soon to be accessible in the Concordance will establish beyond cavil the weighty arguments already adduced for the genuineness of *Ep. x* and *A.T.*

One point deserves special emphasis at the outset. *A.T.* was first published by Moncetti in 1508; the manuscript which he professed to have used is not extant to-day. The author of the work both at the beginning and at the end declares himself as Dante. If the work is really spurious, we are concerned with a deliberate forgery, not merely a case of mistaken attribution on the part of either the original scribe or Moncetti. If, then, the work is a forgery, it is more probable that Moncetti is the guilty person than that in his innocence he happened to find what some one else had forged either in his own day or at some earlier period. I will not deny the possibility of such a circumstance, but it is extremely improbable. Our most natural dilemma is that *A.T.* is either the fiction of Moncetti or a genuine work of Dante.

. The case is exactly the same with *Ep.* x. That was first published by Baruffaldi in 1700, but he surely did not invent it; it is found in its entirety in three manuscripts of the fifteenth century, and the introductory part (§§ 1-4) is found in two manuscripts of the fifteenth century. The first mention of the letter is probably that of Villani at the end of the fourteenth or beginning of the fifteenth century.¹ Now in the salutation of the letter the author purports to be Dante, and even granting that this salutation might be a later addition, a writer who gives an elaborate description of the third part of a poem of his which he calls *Cantica tertia Comœdiæ Dantis, quæ dicitur Paradisus* (l. 257) evidently either is or assumes to be Dante. So, as with *A.T.*, the hypothesis of mistaken attribution must be ruled out at the start. Either this letter is a forgery by Villani or some other writer of the fourteenth century, or it is the authentic work of Dante.²

By "stylistic evidence" I mean not merely coincidence in noticeable phrases. For instance, in *M.* (i. 14. 78) we have the phrase *cum Deus velit quod melius est*, and in *A.T.* (13. 39) *cum Deus et natura semper faciat et velit quod melius est*, the combination *Deus et natura* occurring also in several places in *M.* A coincidence of this sort is interesting, but not a proof of authorship, since the phrase is just what an imitator, seeking to give his forgery verisimilitude, would notice. We must find, if possible, indubitable traits of a minor nature which no imitator could detect, and which therefore bespeak the genuineness of the work. Again, I will not say prove. Stylistics and statistics taken alone must be handled with the utmost caution. Added, however, to the other varieties of evidence in our problem, they come as near to certainty as human methods can. Approaches to an investigation of this sort have been given by Moore,³ and by Biagi in his recent and very elaborate edition of *A.T.* (1907), which he concludes with a word-index, apparently complete except for some of the minor words, giving parallel passages or phrases in the other works of Dante; in this undertaking he found the concordance of Fiammazzo valuable. The result shows, he declares, *la perfetta identità*

¹ For the above facts, see Boffito's edition, 1907, pp. 1 ff.

² I am neglecting, as I think I have a right to neglect in the present discussion, theories of a composite origin of *Ep.* x. See Moore, *Studies in Dante*, Third Series, pp. 347 ff.

³ *Studies in Dante*, Second Series, 1899, pp. 346 ff.; Third Series, pp. 324 ff.

lessicale e sintattica between *A.T.* and the other works. This perfect identity may be still more minutely shown.

I will treat the subject under two heads: 1, Dante's vocabulary; 2, his constructions. As a preliminary, we should note that the works under discussion differ in length, but that if we take for comparison not the entire *M.* or *V.E.*, but the books of these works, the units in question will be more nearly commensurable. Thus *M.* i has ten pages of Moore's edition; ii, ten and a half; iii, thirteen and a half; *V.E.* i, eleven and a half; ii, ten and a half; *Ep.* x, six and a half; *A.T.* eight. It will be seen that even when so considered we have smaller amounts of text in *Ep.* x and *A.T.* than in a book of *M.* or *V.E.* and hence should not expect so many instances of any given peculiarity. We have enough material for profitable investigation, however. The pages in Moore are closely printed. In the *editio princeps*, in which likewise no space is lost, *A.T.* takes up thirteen and a half pages. I will not always apportion my statistics to the different books, but the reader should keep these general proportions in mind.

Coming first to the vocabulary of the Latin works, we must remember above all that a genius like Dante is bound to vary his phraseology. If it were true that all the words in *A.T.* and *Ep.* x occurred elsewhere in Dante, that would indicate the spuriousness rather than the genuineness of those treatises. Let us begin by testing as specimens the Latin words, whatever their nature, that begin with A, and note those that are found only in some one of the different works. I do not consider here the Latin quotations in Dante's Italian works. The number of occurrences, if greater than one, is indicated in the parentheses after each word.

ECL. I

abscondo, *adusque*, *alveolus*, *Aonius*, *astricola*, *atritus* = 6.

ECL. II

acernus, *Achaemenides*, *Acis*, *Adria*, *Aemilis*, *Aetna*, *Aetnaeus*, *Aetnicus*, *agrestis*, *Alphesiboeus*, *alumnus*, *ango*, *annosus* (2), *aridus*, *arrideo*, *arundo*, *arundineus*, *arvum*, *avidus* = 19.

ECL. I AND II

anhelus (2), *armentum* (2). Total for *Ecl.* = 27.

M. I

abeo, *abstractum*, *acceptabilior* (2), *acceptabilissimus*, *actuo* (2), *acuo*, *adlescentia*, *aegroto*, *agibilis*, *agito*, *albedo*, *algor*, *amplior* (2), *analytice*, *ancillor*, *apprehendo* (2), *apprehensivus*, *Arago*, *aristocraticus*, *assequor* (2), *auxiliatio*, *Averrois* = 22.

M. II

abrumbo, *Abydos*, 'acerbe,' 'acies,' *adoptio*, 'adveho,' *adversor*, *Aeacides*, *Aeneis* (2), 'aes,' *aestivus*, 'aethereus,' *Afri*, *Africa* (6), *Africanus* (2), *agon*, *agonista*, *Albanus* (3), *altrinsecus*, 'amabilis,' *amissio*, *Anchises*, *ancile* (2), *Andromache*, *anhelo*, *Antaeus* (2), *ante adv.*, *approbo*, *aptus*, *arbiter*, 'ardentior,' *artificiose*, *Assaracus*, *assentio*, *Assyrius*, 'asto,' *Atalanta*, *athleta* (6), *athletizo* (3), *athlotheta*, 'Atlantis,' 'auratus,' *Ausonia*, 'Ausonius,' *avia*, *avus* (2) = 46.

M. III

abnego, *absolute* (3), *absumo*, *abundanter*, *abundantia*, *accidentalis*, 'acuso,' *acquiesco*, *adeptio*, *adhibeo*, *advoco* (3), *aequivalentia*, *aequivaleo* (4), *afficio*, 'affluens,' *Agatho*, *alienatio*, *alieno* (2), *altar*, *altercatio*, *annihilo*, *apostema*, *applico*, *archipresbyter*, *architectus*, *areola*, *Asianus*, 'attexo,' *auctorizo* (6), *auditio*, 'azyma' = 31.

M. I AND II

acquirō (7), *aestus* (2), *annexus* (2).

M. I AND III

activus (2), *ambitus* (7), *assimilo* (3), *aureus* (2).

M. II AND III

adiuvo (5), *artifex* (4). Total for *M.* = 108.

V.E. I

abmotim, *accentuo*, *accola*, *acerbitas* (2), *adiectio*, *adinvenio* (2), *admoveo*, *Aduaticus* (2), *adultus*, *advena* (2), *advenio*, *adverbium*, *aedificatio* (2), *aequator*, *aequo*, *aetas*, *affirmo* (4), *Alamania*, *Alamannus*, *Alexandria*, *allego*, *allubesco*, *alteratio*, *alterno*, *altriplex*, *Alvernia*, *ambages*, *amentia*, *amicabilis*, *amoenior*, *amoveo*, *amussis*, *Aconitanus* (3), *Anglia*, *Anglicus* (2), *angulus* (2), *anterioritas*, *antiquior*, *apocopo*, *Apulia*, *Apulus* (5), *Aquileiensis* (2), *Aragonia*, *architector n.*, *architector vb.*, *argumentor* (2), *Arturus*, *aspiro*, *associo*, *assuefacio*, *assuefio*, *asylum*, *audacter*, *augustus*, *avidissimus*, *Azzo* = 56.

V.E. II

accensio, acutus, additio, admissio, aemulor, Aeneidorum (2), *aequalitas* (3), *allevio, alloquor, alterus, angelicus, animalis* (2), *antecedens* adj., *aporio, appendo, Aquinum, armonia* (2), *armonizo* (6), *Arnaldus* (5), *artificiatus, ascensus* (2), *asper, aspiratio, astripetus, aulice, austeritas* = 26.

V.E. I AND II

accentus (4), *amplissimus* (2), *anterior* (2), *Arctinus* (4), *arrogro* (2), *asiduitas* (2) = 6. Total for V.E. = 88.

EP. I

adiaceo, affectuosissimus, affluentia, Albus, attento = 5.

EP. II

alipes.

EP. III

abstineo, assiduus.

EP. IV

acceptus.

EP. V

'*acceptabilis*,' *affectuosius, agellus, alba, almus, Alpes, amplexor, ancillor, animositas, anne, annuo, Argus, arrigo, assurgo* (2), *attenuo* = 15.

EP. VI

advento, advolo, aedificium, altissime, amarissime, amens, antiquitas, Aprilis, aries, armo, arrogantia, atqui, augustalis, avolo = 14.

EP. VII

accumulo, Agag (2), *aggrego, Alcides, alimentum, allicio, Amalech* (3), *Amata, Amos, amplexus, amputatio, angustissimus, angustus, arbor, area, aresco, ascio, assevero, avello* = 19.

EP. VIII

abigo, abominabilis, abvium, accuratissime, aestimo, aeternitas, affigo, aggenero, Alcimus, Ambrosius, ara, aranea, arca (2, '1'), *aspergo* n., *astronomus, auriga* = 16.

EP. IX

absolutio, affectuose.

EP. X

absolutus, accuratus, admirabilitas (2), *allecturus, allegoria* (2), *allegoricus* (2), *alleon, A(lpha), amicitia* (7, '1'), *amodo, anagogicus, analogia, analogous, angustia, Apollo* (3), *ascensio, attentio, attentus* (2), *attollo, auditor* (2) = 20.

A.T.

accessus, adaequatio (5), *adimitor, aequivoce* (2), *altior* (20), *antarcticus, Antepaedicamenta, apparentia, appensio, arcticus, astrologus, attractio, attraho* = 13.

The above list shows that *Ep. x* and *A.T.* agree with the accepted works in their use of a dozen words or more which occur nowhere else in Dante. The number of such words varies considerably in the different books of the accepted works; *Ep. x* in proportion to its size has more than *M. i* and less than *M. ii*. *A.T.* has a sufficient number, though less, as we might expect from the subject, than in any book of *V.E.* or *M.* The longer letters show a high proportion, but *Ep. iv*, most probably genuine, has in its page of text only one word not elsewhere used.

I now subjoin a list of words which illustrates Dante's general vocabulary and which shows that *Ep. x* and *A.T.* conform to the accepted works in the use of words and senses, whether frequent or rare, in Dante. I do not include everything here, but aim especially to show Dante's use of minor words and particles and his technical phraseology — his argumentative apparatus — though some words here registered do not come under this heading. Each word occurs in at least three of the four works and sometimes elsewhere. If a word occurs in *Ep. x* but not in *A.T.*, *Ep. x* is added in parenthesis; *A.T.* is added if the word occurs there but not in *Ep. x*; if no work is mentioned in parenthesis, the word occurs in both *Ep. x* and *A.T.* In a few cases, e.g. *amplius*, more exact statements are made. If the word is printed in italics, it occurs not more than five times in any of the works in which it appears. If it is in black roman type, it occurs from six to fifteen times in some one of the works; if in black italic type, sixteen to twenty-five times; if in capitals, over twenty-five times. "Arg." denotes a logical or argumentative term, "phil." a philosophical term.

Accedo (*Ep. x*), *accipio* (arg., *Ep. x*), *actus* (*A.T.*), *adduco* (arg., *Ep. x*), *adhuc* (arg., rare; frequent in St. Thomas Aquinas), *agens, ago* (arg. and phil.), *aliqualis* (*Ep. x*; cf. *aliqua-liter M., V.E.*), *aliquando, amplius* (arg., rare; *M., Epp. iii, vi*; frequent in St. Thomas Aquinas), *apparet* (arg.), *appello*,

argumentum, **asserō** (Ep. x), **coepio** (A.T.), **communiter**, **CONSEQUENS** (*per consequens* and *consequens est* in all four), **considero**, **deinde**, **denique**, **destructio** (arg.), **differentia** (A.T.), **e** (rare; generally in the phrase *e converso*, which occurs in all four works), **efficio** (A.T.), **elementum**, **eo quod**, **equidem** (A.T.), **evidentia** (only in the phrase *ad evidentiam*; cf. *evidens* M., *evidenter* M., V.E.), **existimo** (Ep. x), **exordium** (Ep. x), **extra**, **facilior** (Ep. x), **frustra** (A.T.), **gradus**, **huiusmodi**, **ibi**, **IDEM**, **ideo**, **immediate** (Ep. x; cf. *immediatus* M., V.E.), **immo**, **impossibilis**, **inferius** adv. (A.T.), **influo** (phil.), **innuo** (arg.), **inspicio** (arg.), **INTENDO**, **intra** (Ep. x), **intueor** (arg., A.T.), **invicem** (Ep. x), **ita** (rare), **magis**, **manifesto** vb., **materia**, **melius** adv. (Ep. x), **minus** (A.T.), **minus**, **MODUS** (*nullo modo* M., V.E., A.T.; *per modum* with genitive in all four works), **motor** (phil.), **motus**, **multo** (A.T.), **NATURA**, **naturalis**, **ne**, **NEC**, **neque** (very rare), **nihil**, **nil** (rarer than *nihil*; Ep. x), **nonne** (rather poetical, Ecl., M. ii, V.E., Epp. v, vi, vii, ix, x), **nonnullus** (Ep. x), **nosco** (Ep. x), **nunc** (arg.), **numquid**, **omitto** (arg.), **oppositum** (arg., A.T.), **OSTENDO**, **philosophia**, **philosophor** (A.T.), **plus** (very rare; Ep. x), **pono** (arg.), **POST** prep., **postquam** (rare; Ep. x), **potius**, **praefatus** (A.T.), **praemitto** (arg., Ep. x), **praenoto** (arg.), **praesens**, **praeter**, **praeterea** (rare; A.T.), **primo** (*primum* is very rare, see list for V.E. and M., p. 31), **principaliter** (Ep. x), **PRINCIPIUM**, **prior** (A.T.), **prius**, **procedo** (arg. and phil.), **propono** incl. *propositum* (arg.), **PROPRIUS**, *proptereaquod*, **QUAERO**, **quaestio** (A.T.), **qualis** (rare), **quantitas**, **quantumcumque** (Ep. x), **quilibet**, **quidem** (Ep. x), **QUI QUIDEM**, **quin** (rare; M. but none in bk. i, V.E., Epp. v, vi, vii, viii), **quippe** (Ep. x), **quisquam** (rare; Ep. x), **quisque** (rare; Ep. x), **quo**, **quomodo** (rare; Ep. x), **quoniam** (rare; Ep. x), **RATIO**, **recipio** (arg. and phil.), **recte** (A.T.), **requiro**, **RES** (phil.), **respectus** (*per respectum ad* V.E., Ep. x, A.T.), **saltem** (A.T.), **satis**, **scientia**, **scio** (in two thirds of the instances, the gerundive *sciendum* is found; Ep. x and A.T. conform), **scribo** (introducing quotations), **secundo**, **semper**, **sensus**, **sermo**, **seu** (rare, see *sive*; Ep. x), **SICUT**, **significo** (Ep. x), **similis**, **similiter**, **similitudo**, **simplex** (cf. *simplicissimus* V.E., *simplicitas* M., V.E.), **simpliciter**, **simul**, **singulus** (A.T.), **SIVE** (cf. *sen*), **soleo** (A.T.), **species** (A.T.), **speculor** (Ep. x), **spiritualis** (Ep. x), **SUB**, **subiectum**, **substantia**, **subtiliter** (A.T.), **sufficienter** (A.T.; cf. *sufficiens* A.T., *sufficientia* M., V.E.), **sufficio**, **super** (rare; *super* = *de* is very rare), **superius**, **talis**, **tam** (rare, generally *tam . . . quam*), **tango** (arg.), **TANTUS**, **teneo** (arg.), **totaliter**, **tractatus**, **tum** (rare; A.T.), **tunc** (a bit more frequent than *tum*), **ubique**, **ulterius**, **universum**, **universus**, **unusquisque** (A.T.), **usque** (A.T.), **utrum** (A.T.), **VEL** (cf. *aut*), **vere** (A.T.), **VERITAS**, **verso** vb. (Ep. x), **VERO** (*verum* very rare; Ecl. ii, M. i, ii, Epp. vi, vii, x), **VERUS**, *via* "method" (arg., A.T.), **virtus** = *potentia* (phil.), **volo** (arg.).

Having shown sufficiently by testing Dante's Latin vocabulary that Ep. x and A.T. conform in this regard to accepted works, let me now refer

to various constructions in which they all manifest a striking similarity. I will begin with *si*.

Si occurs in each of the seven books between twenty and sixty times. The indicative is used in a simple condition, protasis and apodosis, in all the books. Conditions contrary to fact, with imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, occur in all the works save *Ep.* x. A usage not common in classical Latin is that of the indicative in the apodosis and the present subjunctive in the protasis.¹ Thus:

si contingat peccatum in forma artis, materiae imputandum est (*M.* ii. 2. 22). This present subjunctive is clearly not the less vivid future, but hortatory or concessive. The indicative of the apodosis is generally either future, or some form implying future time, like the gerundive. A favorite formula in *M.* is *si* with *considero*, e.g. *si enim consideremus unum hominem . . . videbimus* (*M.* i. 5. 22). This appears in *V.E.* also, which work and *Ep.* x have *inspicio* in the same sense. In *M.* the apodosis is almost always of the nature described. In *V.E.* and *Ep.* x the usage is somewhat freer, the present indicative appearing oftener than in *M.* instead of a tense implicitly future: e.g.

si quis autem quaerat . . . respondemus (*V.E.* i. 10. 40); *si inspiciamus . . . videtur* (*V.E.* i. 12. 15); *si ergo accipitur . . . manifestum est* (*Ep.* x, 364); *si essentia sit intellectiva, virtus tota est unius* (*Ep.* x, 395).

This construction explains the apparent abnormality of *A.T.* 12. 19:

Si igitur aqua erit in A, et habeat transitum . . . movebitur ad B.

The curious use of the future indicative *erit* with the present subjunctive *habeat* as a second member of the *si* clause is a comment on the meaning of this subjunctive, a proof that it is not less vivid future. Of the many occurrences of the present subjunctive in conditions, every one is most naturally explained as hortatory-concessive. Dante's substitute for the present subjunctive in less vivid future conditions is a lax use of the imperfect, as:

Et si quis instaret . . . inutilis est instantia (*M.* iii. 7. 23); *Quod si cuiquam . . . videretur indignum, Spiritum sanctum audiat* (*Ep.* x. 35); *Si igitur aqua moveretur ad B . . . movebuntur* (*A.T.* 12. 45).

What later forger could have penetrated so deeply into Dante's feeling about the conditional subjunctive? I may add that despite the brevity

¹ There are certain approaches in classical usage. See E. F. Clafin in *Classical Journal*, 1911, pp. 305-307.

of *Ep.* ii, which prevents any extensive application of stylistic evidence in its case, the sentence *si considerentur . . . lux . . . exoritur* (28), speaks for its genuineness.

In *V.N.* 7. 43 Dante quotes a sentence from the Vulgate in which *si* takes the indicative in an indirect question, and himself uses this lax construction in *V.E.* i. 4. 46, *recordetur si numquam dixit*, but not in his later works. A collocation likewise found in *V.E.*, but not later, is *puta si*.

In the compounds of *si*, the same principles are observed. *Ac si* and its equivalents take in classical Latin the present subjunctive in present time; it is the same hortatory-concessive subjunctive which in Dante's usage had spread to all clauses with *si*, and which in Boethius was well on its way to this development. In Dante these particles, which are very rare, take either the present or imperfect subjunctive, as in *M.* iii. 15. 34: *Quod non sic intelligendum est, ac si Christus . . . non sit dominus*; and just below: *Velut si aureum sigillum loqueretur. Ac si* appears in *Ep.* x. 504, and, though differing from the *ac si* clause just quoted from *M.*, shows that the writer understands Dante's real usage: *et similis modus arguendi est ac si dicerem*.

Nisi is most frequently used elliptically without a verb, as *quod esse non potest, nisi quando*, *M.* i. 8. 27, and is generally preceded by a negative. *Ep.* x and *A.T.* accord with the other works in this peculiarity. When *nisi* takes a verb, the same constructions are found as for *si*. Thus, to take examples of the hortatory-concessive subjunctive:

Sed hoc esse non potest . . . nisi sit voluntas una (*M.* i. 15. 56); *diesis esse non potest . . . nisi reiteratio unius odae fiat* (*V.E.* ii. 10. 31); *non potest esse concentrica terrae, nisi terra sit . . . gibbosa* (*A.T.* 13. 9).

Etsi is not used in *V.E.* and *A.T.* It appears in some of the letters, once in *Ep.* x with the present indicative in both clauses, and several times in *M.*, where either present indicative or present hortatory-concessive subjunctive is used. *Etiamsi* occurs once in *V.E.*, with this same subjunctive, which is found likewise in two of the occurrences in *M.* Thus *Ep.* x and *A.T.* agree with the acceptedly genuine works not only in conforming to the constructions which Dante frequently employs in them, but in avoiding those which he avoids.

Another significant particle is *quod*, which occurs over four hundred and fifty times in all, the figures for the works in question being: fifty-eight

in *M.* i, fifty-four in ii, ninety-four in iii, fifty-eight in *V.E.* i, forty-two in ii, forty-five in *Ep.* x, seventy-four in *A.T.* A curious construction appears in *V.E.*, — *quod* with either indicative or subjunctive like *ut* of result. Thus: *angelus in illa, et diabolus in illo taliter operati sunt, quod ipsa animalia moverunt organa sua, V.E. i. 12. 47.* Other proleptic particles besides *taliter* in *V.E.* are *ita, adeo, tantus, in tantum.* The same peculiarity appears in *Ep.* x. 528: *intellectus in tantum profundat se in ipsum desiderium suum . . . quod memoria sequi non potest.* But there is no trace of this usage in Dante's latest works. In these, however, *quod* is used a few times like *ut* of purpose, thus: *oportet quod reducantur ad unum hominem, M. iii. 12. 11. Dato quod, Hoc supponatur quod, ad hoc quod* are the other phrases found in *M.*; the construction develops readily from the frequent use of *quod* in the sense of "that," plus a hortatory subjunctive. Dante had a model in a sentence from the Vulgate which he quotes in *M.* ii. 8. 63, — *hoc solum habemus residui, quod oculos nostros ad Te dirigamus.* Naturally the mood used is subjunctive, whereas *quod* in a clause of result takes the indicative in all but two instances, in one of which (*V.E.* i. 15. 56) the subjunctive is the apodosis in a conditional sentence, in the other of which (*V.E.* i. 6. 3) the verb *intelligentur* is perhaps due to an easy scribal error, though Rajna may be right in following the manuscripts.¹

Now just as *Ep.* x conforms to *V.E.* in the *quod* of result, so we find *A.T.* agreeing with *M.* in using a *quod* of purpose: *quod potest fieri per unum, melius est quod fiat per unum quam per plura* (14. 34). Likewise in *Ep.* iv. 51, a letter most probably authentic, we find: *quod contra Rhamnusiae spicula sis patiens te exhortor.* Certain instances in *V.E.* and *Ep.* x which also may belong here will be discussed below (page 23).

Quod occurs with the familiar causal sense, the usage being regular, but in the overwhelming majority of cases it signifies "that," and ranges through all shades of meaning from the classical use of *quod* after a verb like *miror* (*Ed.* ii. 24), to the freest constructions in indirect discourse. The indicative mood is regularly used, but if the statement is doubtful or denied, the subjunctive. Thus:

• Sed dicere quod Ecclesia sic abutatur patrimonio . . . est valde inconveniens (*M.* iii. 13. 76); sed dicere quod in excellentissima Itorum curia sit libratum,

¹ Note, however, that the two manuscripts T and G read *intelligentur*, which might well arise from a misreading of *u* with superscribed stroke (= *un*) as *a*.

videtur nugatio (*V.E.* i. 17. 43); potest etiam probabiliter ostendi, quod aqua non habeat gibbum (*A.T.* 13. 32); Credunt enim vulgares . . . quod aqua ascendat (*A.T.* 23. 43).

In two of these instances, it will be noticed, the *quod* clause precedes. Dante has a further practice of using the subjunctive if the *quod* clause precedes, whatever the nature of the statement. This rule is abundantly exemplified in all the works. Thus:

Quod autem Monarcha potissime se habeat ad operationem iustitiae, quis dubitat? (*M.* i. 11. 141); Quod autem verum sit . . . sic declaro (*M.* iii. 2. 29); Et quod unum fuerit a principio confusionis . . . apparet (*V.E.* i. 9. 14); Quod autem de divina luce plus recipiat, potest probari per duo (*Ep.* x. 453); Quod etiam sequatur ipsum substat . . . sic declaro (*A.T.* 16. 44).

The reason for this peculiarity is probably that by placing the *quod* clause first, its substance is made a kind of subject for debate, just as a *quod* clause with the subjunctive is frequently used as the title of a chapter. A question is asked, and the prevailing atmosphere is one of uncertainty, which does not clear till the positive statement is given in the main verb. But put the main verb first and the situation changes; the feeling is one of assurance and the *quod* clause following expresses that feeling by the indicative. An exception which proves the rule is *V.E.* ii. 8. 80: *Quod autem dicimus tragica coniugatio, est quia*, etc. (Cf. *M.* iii. 5. 13.) Here, apart from the semicausal force of *quod*, there is no possible doubt of the truth of the statement, and the indicative naturally appears.

Naturally the subjunctive may appear with *quod* when necessitated by other constructions, as when the verb is also the apodosis of a conditional sentence contrary to fact (*V.E.* i. 9. 67; 13. 48; *Ep.* ix. 17; *A.T.* 10. 1, 5, 7). So, too, a hortatory or concessive subjunctive occurs, — a point which I have already discussed and may further illustrate by contrasting the two sentences following:

sicut ad hoc: Quod nemo . . . absque fide salvari potest (*M.* ii. 8. 28); sicut ad hoc: Quod homo pro salute patriae seipsum exponat (*M.* ii. 8. 11).

Exponat in the last sentence is the equivalent of *exponere debet*. It is an excessive feeling of the categorical imperative that results in the statement: *videtur quod quisque versificator debeat ipsum* [sc. *vulgare illustre*] *uti* (*V.E.* ii. 1. 20), where either *utatur* or *debet* would suffice. An interesting case is *A.T.* 16. 19–20: *dicamus quod non distet; et ponamus*

quod . . . *distet*, where the hortatory force in the subjunctive of the main verb flows over, unnecessarily, into the subordinate verbs. A bit looser still is *M.* iii. 2. 10: *Haec . . . veritas praefigatur, scilicet quod illud . . . Deus nolit.*

We have noticed that the present subjunctive with *si* is hortatory-concessive. Such a subjunctive influences that of *quod* in the sentences following:

Et si obiciatur de serpente loquente . . . vel de asina . . . quod locuti sint . . . respondemus (*V.E.* i. 2. 45). Hoc . . . attendendum est . . . quod si eptasyllabum interseratur in primo pede . . . eundem resumat in altero (*V.E.* ii. 12. 74).

In the first of these examples there is also something of the flavor of indirect discourse. A similar and still more natural subjunctive by attraction appears when the main verb is apodosis of a conditional sentence contrary to fact, where the second subjunctive has more justification than in the preceding instances. Thus:

sequeretur . . . quod alterum scilicet esset frustra (*M.* ii. 6. 28; so i. 3. 43; iii. 6. 5; 10. 95); iam videretur quod Deus locutus exstisset (*V.E.* i. 4. 47); unde sequeretur . . . quod terra undique esset circumfusa (*A.T.* 16. 14).

The main verb in the subjunctive with a subjunctive in the *quod* clause occurs only in the instances I have quoted. In *A.T.* we find two cases of an antecedent subjunctive with an indicative in the *quod* clause:

Manifestum sit omnibus vobis quod, existente me Mantuae, quaestio quaedam exorta est (1. 1); Et praesciatur hoc, quod aqua non potest esse concentrica terrae (13. 8).

This is most natural; the categorical nature of the statement in the *quod* clause is so obvious, that an intruding subjunctive is not allowed. Remembering, however, *V.E.* ii. 12. 74, shall we say that the usage here is not Dante's? That were dangerous, especially as exact parallels may be found in *Ep.* vi. 57, and vii. 77, letters admittedly genuine. In *Ep.* vi. 180, the antecedent phrase *vestris animis infigenda supersunt* has exactly the force of *praesciatur* in the *A.T.* passage, and is followed by *quod* with the indicative. Again, these are the exceptions which prove the rule, and argue much more for the genuineness than for the spuriousness of *A.T.* I may now add that in one sentence in *M.*, although the main verb is not subjunctive, the indicative of the *quod* clause is preceded by a dependent

hortatory subjunctive, which, as in the example from the *A.T.*, fails to influence the mood of the following verb :

Dico ergo quod licet Luna non habeat lucem abundanter, nisi ut a Sole recipit, non propter hoc sequitur, quod, etc. (*M.* iii. 4. 130).

I have thus far shown that Dante, though not conforming to classical usage exactly, always means something by his subjunctives ; in fact he uses them subtly. There remains a curious usage in which a certain amount of fluctuation appears. The last quotation, completed, reads : *non propter hoc sequitur, quod ipsa Luna sit a Sole*. At first one might account for the subjunctive by the preceding negative, as in *M.* iii. 6. 39 ; 8. 70 ; and *A.T.* 23. 55 : *non propter hoc est necesse quod imitetur*. But the subjunctive is also found frequently after an affirmative form of *sequor*. Thus :

Ex quo sequitur, quod . . . Monarchia sit necessaria (*M.* i. 13. 69). Et ex hac conclusione sequitur . . . quod terra aequaliter . . . distet . . . et quod sit substans (*A.T.* 16. 7-10). Compare also *M.* i. 11. 88 ; ii. 2. 44 ; 7. 17 ; *A.T.* 12. 57.

There may be a touch of Dante's favorite categorical imperative in this subjunctive ; or it may be that in stating the conclusion of an argument he has in mind the subjunctive *quod* clause in which the original proposition might appear at the head of a chapter — a construction which may, as we have seen, explain the subjunctive in a *quod* clause preceding the verb. At any rate, the same usage appears after other expressions, besides *sequitur*, which indicate the drawing of a conclusion. Before turning to these, I wish to point out that the indicative is also used after *sequor*. The most striking instance is *M.* ii. 2. 47, 48, where the subjunctive has just been used :

Et . . . sequitur ulterius quod divina voluntas sit ipsum ius. Et iterum ex hoc sequitur quod ius . . . nihil est aliud quam similitudo divinae voluntatis. So *M.* i. 12. 93 ; 14. 17 ; iii. 2. 48.

May we not explain this difference thus, — that if he is thinking primarily of the process of drawing a conclusion, he uses the subjunctive, whereas if his attention is centered on the fact that he has proved, he uses the indicative ? The essence of the matter may be further illustrated by a passage in *A.T.* 6. 8-9 :

quare oppositum eius ex quo sequebatur est verum, scilicet quod aqua sit altior terra. Consequentia probatur per hoc, quod aqua naturaliter fertur deorsum.

The first *quod* clause with the subjunctive states a conclusion ; the second *quod* clause with the indicative states a premise, an established fact, of use in drawing a conclusion.

But to turn to other formulæ. *Consequens est* is evidently a synonym for *sequitur*. It takes *quod* with the subjunctive in *M.* i. 11. 139 ; iii. 16. 8 ; *V.E.* i. 4. 41 ; *Ep.* x. 106 ; *A.T.* 15. 15 ; 21. 34. *Rationabile est*, or *videtur esse*, has much the same meaning, particularly as we find the phrase in close connection with *consequens est* (*V.E.* i. 4. 37-41). It takes the subjunctive in the passage just cited, in *V.E.* i. 15. 29, and *A.T.* 7. 5. *Restat* means not "it remains to prove" but "it follows," in *M.* ii. 2. 28, 32, where it takes the subjunctive. Just so *relinquitur*, *M.* iii. 12. 13, *A.T.* 20. 44, and especially 4. 7-9 :

Et cum locus tanto sit nobilior [this amounts to a premise] . . . relinquitur, quod locus aquae sit altior loco terrae, et per consequens quod aqua sit altior terra.

Colligitur has the subjunctive with *quod* (*M.* iii. 15. 52) and also the indicative (*M.* i. 13. 33). *Unde fit quod* is surely a phrase denoting inference ; it is found only in *M.*, where it takes now the subjunctive (ii. 2. 50 ; iii. 3. 26 ; 16. 109), now the indicative (i. 13. 7 ; 15. 13). *Hinc est quod* has the subjunctive (*V.E.* i. 18. 39), or the indicative (*M.* i. 4. 19 ; 12. 27). *Inde est quod* occurs only in *Ep.* x. 479, 618, where it has the indicative. *Signum (est) quod* is a peculiarity of *V.E.*, where once it has the subjunctive (i. 8. 45), and once the indicative (ii. 5. 34). The usage of *V.E.* goes rather far in allowing the subjunctive after *apparet* (ii. 1. 31) or *videtur* (ii. 1. 20) (see above on the hortatory subjunctive, page 19),¹ and just so *Ep.* x in *Propter quod patet quod* with the subjunctive. In *M.* the indicative not infrequently appears where the subjunctive might be expected, especially in *M.* ii. 2. 39 ff., where we find *Ex his iam liquet quod* and the indicative, followed by *sequitur ulterius quod* and the subjunctive, and that by *Et iterum ex hoc sequitur quod* and the indicative (see above, page 22). *Concludo* is a word which on the above principle ought normally to take the subjunctive ; it appears with *quod* only in *A.T.* where once (23. 51) it has the subjunctive, and once (23. 17) the indicative. Surely this subtle conformity with Dante's usage and no less subtle divergence from it in *Ep.* x and *A.T.* bespeak the genuineness of these works. On

¹ Perhaps the subjunctive with *videtur quod* betokens the doubtfulness of the statement, as often in St. Thomas, e.g., *Sum. Contra Gent.* iii. 46, 47.

finding in *A.T.* two instances of a pleonastic *quod*, which nowhere else occurs, I regard the proof not as weakened, but as strengthened. Thus:

Dico ergo, quod si aqua sit in A, et habeat transitum, quod naturaliter movebitur ad B (*A.T.* 12. 19, 20; so 21. 32, 34).

Another detail deserves mention here. In one or two instances we note that *A.T.* and *V.E.* show a common peculiarity which is seen in none of the other works. Thus *credo quod, respondetur quod, rationabile est* (or *videtur esse*) *quod*, the last phrase with its peculiar subjunctive, are found in *A.T.* and *V.E.* but not elsewhere. Significant concurrences of this sort are especially worth noting in view of the date of publication of these two works. Moncetti published *A.T.* in 1508. As *V.E.*, of which only two manuscripts are known to-day, was not published in translation and was hardly known till 1529, and as the Latin text did not appear till 1577, it is not likely that Moncetti was acquainted with the work. Noting then the minute agreements between *V.E.* and *A.T.* which I have indicated, and others which will later appear, we must abandon once for all the supposition that Moncetti forged the *A.T.* Moreover, it is at least doubtful whether Moncetti knew *M.*, for although Marsilio Ficino had translated the work at the end of the fifteenth century, the *editio princeps* did not appear till 1559. If Moncetti did not know *M.*, we must add to the coincidences between *A.T.* and *V.E.* a vastly more numerous array, as we shall see, of coincidences between *A.T.* and *M.* which could not possibly have arisen by chance.¹

Not much chronological evidence may be found in the *quod* constructions. We have noted that the use of *quod* and the indicative in a result clause is rather frequent in *V.E.*, but appears only once later, in *Ep.* x. Another characteristic of *V.E.* is the use of *secundum quod*, which occurs eight times in Book i and eight times in Book ii, and only scattering in the later works.

I subjoin a list of the different words followed by *quod* in the sense of "that."

V.E., *Ep.* x, *A.T.*, and *M.*; consequens est, dico, manifestum est, patet, probro, scio.

V.E. and *A.T.*; credo, rationabile est (or esse videtur), respondetur.

¹ Only the *Convivio* had been printed when *A.T.* appeared, as Moore remarks, *Studies in Dante*, Second Series, p. 307. Of course it should not be forgotten that *M.* was accessible in a fairly large number of manuscripts.

V.E., *A.T.*, and *M.*; apparet.

V.E. and *M.*; hinc est, testor (also in *M.* testis est, testimonium perhibet), video.

V.E. alone; allego, argumentor, attendo, considero, ecce, fateor, indagor, obicitur, palatur, praetereo, in mente premo, in promptu est, signum est.

Ep. x, *A.T.*, and *M.*; praenoto.

Ep. x and *M.*; constat, oportet.

Ep. x alone; inde est, praenuncio.

A.T. and *M.*; arguo, declaro, ostendo, relinquitur, sequitur, scilicet.

A.T. alone; concludo, imaginor, necesse est, praescio, pono.

M. alone; adverto, ait, assero, canto, comprobo, colligo, dato, deprehendo, dubito, habeo, innotesco, liquet, memini, non obstante, praefigo, satis persuasum est, planum est, restat, revelatum est, scribo, suppono, unde est, unde fit, vaticinor.

Quia is used less frequently (one hundred sixty-nine times) in Dante than *quod* (four hundred fifty-three times). It also differs in meaning. From *Purg.* iii. 37: *State contente, humana gente, al quia* (= τὸ ὅτι, "simple fact")¹ one might imagine that Dante generally used *quia* in the sense of "that" and not "because." The reverse is true. It means "that" in only nine instances. Thus:

Satis igitur declarata subadsumpta principali, patet quia conclusio certa est (*M.* i. 11. 147; so *V.E.* ii. 10. 1, 2).

In *M.* iii. 6. 19, it is plainly used for variety or clearness, as a *quod* "that" immediately precedes in the same clause. *M.* iii. 9. 132 is a quotation from the Vulgate; iii. 9. 75 and 117 are virtually quotations. In *V.E.* i. 2. 31 a *quod* "that" clause precedes. In *V.E.* i. 18. 18 (*Quia vero aulicum nominamus, illud causa est*), the particle is semicausal, as in *Ep.* x. 94 (*Cuius ratio est quia*). Thus *quia* "that" is practically excluded by Dante, nor does St. Thomas use the particle often in this sense.² A hasty glance at Albertus Magnus and Duns Scotus indicates that their practice is similar. Can it be that Dante uses *quia* in the *Purgatorio* not as meaning "that," a symbol of mere fact, but as meaning "since," and suggesting an appeal to some assured principle which the logician employs in drawing a conclusion? Thus:

Verum quia omnis veritas, quae non est principium, ex veritate alicuius principii fit manifesta; necesse est, etc. (*M.* i. 2. 16).

¹ Cf. Pope, *Moral Essays*, i. 99: In vain the sage, with retrospective eye, Would from th' apparent What conclude the Why.

² See L. Schüss, *Thomas-Lexikon*, 1881, p. 285.

This usage is extremely frequent in the three authors mentioned. Dante's remark might mean, therefore, "Be content, human race, with established principles, and spend not too much time in seeking new truth by ratiocination." But lest this explanation be thought more subtle than scholasticism itself, I would rather take *quia* in the usual fashion, since it does occur, even though very rarely, in the sense of "that," and since Dante needs a rime-word here. It would be interesting to know whether any author of the period used the word regularly in indirect discourse.

As to other uses of *quia*, I will note merely that in all the four works the particle not infrequently is initial, with the force of *nam*: and that in all the verb is now and then omitted, as:

Cum ergo Monarcha sit universalissima causa inter mortales, ut . . . bene vivant, quia principes alii per illum, ut dictum est (*M. i. 11. 138*); non est extra materiam naturalem, quia inter ens mobile (*A.T. 20. 11*).

In *Ep. x. 221-222*, this usage is so extended that the particle almost means "to wit":

Nam si ad materiam respiciamus, a principio horribilis et foetida est, quia Infernus; in fine prospera . . . quia Paradisus.

In *M. iii. 5. 4*, the meaning is surely "to wit":

dicentes, quod de femore Iacob fluxit figura horum duorum regiminum, quia Levi et Iudas.

A study of all the constructions used by Dante in indirect discourse would be interesting, but I cannot undertake it here. That there is probably no fixed ratio between the use of the infinitive and *quod* appears in the constructions with *dico*, which will be found in the Concordance. Also apparent in all his works is the fondness for using the direct discourse after *dico*. An interesting combination of a *quod* clause and an infinitive clause occurs in *M. i. 14. 17*:

Sequitur, non solum melius esse fieri per unum . . . sed quod fieri per unum est bonum, per plura simpliciter malum.

This may be matched with *Ep. x. 344*:

ubi dicit se fuisse in primo coelo et quod dicere vult de regno coelesti quid quid . . . potuit retinere.

There should be no semicolon after *coelo*, as in Moore's edition.

I have selected only a few syntactical peculiarities for discussion, but the reader of the Concordance will find many other matters to strengthen his faith in the authenticity of *Ep. x* and *A.T.* by examining, for instance, the articles *cum*, *dum*, *ubi*, *ut* (*uti*), *licet*, *quamquam*, *quavis*, *quando*, *quare* with indirect question, and indirect questions in general, the reflexives *sui* and *suus*, and the auxiliary use of the perfect of *sum*. The evidence therein contained, added to what we have already noted, should dispose once for all of the possibility of forgery on the part of a later writer like Moncetti, who lived at a time when Latin style had undergone a thorough transformation. One who would declare *A.T.* and *Ep. x* spurious is thus driven to the supposition that both treatises are forgeries of the fourteenth century. But even then the burden of proof would rest upon him: he must explain away the many minute coincidences with Dante's genuine writings. Complete evidence cannot be presented until further study is made of the writers of Dante's time, that common traits of the period may be distinguished from peculiarities of Dante. It would be profitable, for instance, to examine the writers quoted by Biagi¹ who were interested in the subject discussed in *A.T.* I will appeal to one example of an almost contemporary style, a style at least antedating the new humanistic Latinity,² namely that of Villani. The opening sections of his commentary on the *Inferno* are of special interest, seeing that his material is based in part on *Ep. x*. I note certain resemblances to Dante's usages; the use of a present subjunctive in a *si* clause seems similar. But a rapid glance reveals several important details in which Villani is not at one with Dante. One is a frequent use of *siquidem*, generally post-positive, in the sense of *enim*, which I find in Villani wherever I turn; Dante does not use *siquidem* (or *si quidem*) at all. Another striking fact is that in Villani *quod* "that" hardly occurs. In the first thirteen chapters of the *Comento*, a section surely larger than *Ep. x*, I have discovered only *two* after a hasty search, and there cannot be many more. One of these is especially interesting. It occurs in chapter x (p. 34 Cugnoni) where Villani is defining *comedia*. He says:

Ad quorum intelligentiam scire debemus, quod ab hoc greco nomine comos, quod latine villa sonat, et oda, cantus dicitur comedia, hoc est villanus cantus.

¹ *Op. cit.*, pp. 181 ff.

² See G. Cugnoni's edition of Villani's *Comento al Primo Canto dell' Inferno*, 1896, in Passerini, *Collez. di Opusc. Dant.*, vol. xxxi, pp. 18 ff.

But this is virtually a quotation of Dante's words (*Ep.* x, 190 ff.):

Ad cuius notitiam sciendum est, quod comoedia dicitur a *comus*, *villa*, et *oda*, quod est *cantus*, unde *comoedia* quasi *villanus cantus*.

It is curious that the author of *Ep.* x should use *sciendum est*, which is very frequent in Dante, while Villani should change this to *scire debemus* which Dante never uses. A bit later (*l.* 218) Dante declares:

Et per hoc patet, quod Comoedia dicitur praesens opus.

This time Villani (p. 35) changes the construction to one more familiar to him:

Bene igitur, si diligenter opus totum nostri comici spectetur, rite comedia titulabitur.

If Villani forged *Ep.* x, as some believe,¹ he possessed both tremendous intuition and a most curious method. Rather he is dealing with a source, and the personality of the forger, as in the case of *A.T.*, must be pushed further back, — back, I believe, until it loses its hypothetical existence and merges with that of Dante himself.

But I turn now from syntax to Dante's vocabulary again, in the hopes of finding evidence not only for the genuineness of the disputed works, but for the chronological order assumed at the beginning of this paper. Let me state again that I mean this as deductive, not inductive, proof; starting with the order *V.E.*, *Ep.* x, *A.T.*, *M.*, I aim merely to show that stylistic traits are in conformity with it.

Assuming *V.E.* to be the earliest of the four works, we find the following words or idioms used exclusively (black letter) or largely (italics) in this work, but rarely or never in the three later works; occurrences elsewhere than in the four works are sometimes indicated in parentheses. As in the general list given above (p. 15 f.) I have excluded words which seem primarily demanded by the nature of the subject, though in this matter it is hard to draw the line.

affirmo, *attendo*, **brevis**, *brevis*, *cecu*, *circa*, **comminiscor**, *conceptio*, **conceptus**, **conicio**, **consensus**, **consequenter**, **contanter**, **convinco** (arg.), **corporaliter**, *cunctus*, *deinceps*, *demum*, *diffinio* (*V.E.* ii), *directe*, *discretive*, **discussio**, **disiunctim**, **disiungo**, **dissentio**, **dissero**, **dissuasorie**, *doctrina*, *dumtaxat*, **elucido**, *etenim* (rare in *M.*, *A.T.*, not in *Ep.* x), **examino**, **excellens** (*excellentior* *Ep.* x), **excellenter**, **excellentia** (*A.T.*), **excellentissime**, **excellentissimus**, **excellentius**,

¹ See Moore, *Studies in Dante*, Third Series, p. 345.

excello, exinde, extimatio, extrinsecus adj. (*extrinsecus* adv. Ep. ii), extrorsum, factura, falsissimus (but cf. *fallo* etc. under A.T. and M., pages 33, 34), fateor, fere, figurate, fortassis, forte (contrast *forsan*, *fortasse*, M., *forsitan* M., Ep. x), frequentior (cf. *frequens* Ecl. ii), frequenter (*frequentius* Ep. iii), frequento, gratulanter, habituo, idcirco, imitatio (cf. *imitor* M., V.E., A.T., *imitabilis* A.T.), imperfecte (cf. *imperfectus* M.), incongruus, inconvenienter (cf. *inconveniens* M.), incunctanter, individuum, innovo, ironice, irregularis, lector (vocative), membratim, mentio, mixtura (*mixtio* A.T.), mox, multimode, *necnon* (very rare in the other works), necubi, *nempe*, nequicquam, *ni*, nugatio, num, omnimode, oretenus, orientaliter, *paene*, partim, passim, paulatim, pendo, *penitus*, penso, *perpendo*, *perplures*, perscrutor, *perspicaciter*, perspicio, persuasio, persuasorie (*persuadeo*, *persuasor*, M.), *pertracto* (once in M., Ep. x), pessime, posterus (*in posterum* V.E., Ep. i), postmodum, praecedenter (*praecedens* M., V.E., *praecedo* M., V.E., A.T.), praeimmediatus, *praepono*, praerogativa, praerogo, *praetermitto*, *primitus*, principio vb., progressio, progressive, proinde, *prorsus*, *puta*, *puto*, *quamplures*, *quapropter*, *quare* (cf. especially initial *quare* in the sense of *igitur*), quicquid (elsewhere *quidquid*. But are our texts certain on this point?), quis indef. (distinctly less frequent later), quomodocunque, quotquot, raro (*rarius* Ep. ix), rarissime, ratiocinor, rationabiliter, rationabilius, *rationabilis* (A.T.), *rationalis*, *recolo*, *reviso* "to review," saepissime, secundarius (*secundario* M.), segregatim, seligo, sensibilis, *sensualis*, sensualitas, significatus, singulatim, spirituatus, subintelligo, subsecundarius, successio, successive, *successivus*, supercedo, superexcellencia, taliter, *tenus* (only in *superficie* *tenus* V.E. ii), *tot*, *tottot*, *tracto*, *trifarie*, *trifarius*, utrinque, utrobique, verumtamen, vestigo, *videlicet* (*scilicet* is more frequent in M., Ep. x, A.T.), *videtur* (arg.), *vilipendo*, *voco*.

One interesting peculiarity I reserve for the last, — Dante's use of *venor*. In *V.E.* he engages his readers in an imaginary hunt for the *vulgare illustre*. *Decentiorē atque illustrem Italiae venemur loquelam*, he declares (*V.E.* i. 11. 3), and after the search, *postquam venati saltus et pascua sumus Italiae* (i. 16. 1). The word is used thus figuratively ten times in all, and it is not surprising that later, in *M.*, he should twice revert to it in a general sense: *Ad bene quoque venandum veritatem quaesiti* (ii. 8. 1) and *hanc veritatem venantes* (iii. 3. 113). Clearly these passages are later than those in *V.E.*, granting that Dante is the first to use *venor* thus colorlessly.

The above instance is typical of a certain quality in *V.E.*, namely an endeavor to substitute the picturesque — sometimes the grandiloquent — for the technical terms of argumentation. There is a seasoning of poetry in the style of *V.E.* This peculiarity is not maintained later on, even in

M. ii, which in theme and in spirit is even nearer to poetry than *V. E.* is. I will quote one more of many possible instances. Contrast *Postquam . . . de veritate primae . . . inquisitum est, instat nunc* (*M. ii. 2. 3*) with *Praeparatis fustibus . . . nunc fasciandi tempus incumbit* (*V. E. ii. 8. 2*). Other instances of this picturesqueness or grandiloquence may be found under *cribro, decerpo, depompo, divarico, extricatus, perplexus, potio, progressio*.

The above list of favorite expressions of *V. E.* which occur rarely or not at all later may be supplemented by a list of those developed later, being found rarely or never in *V. E.* Various instances have already been given in the general list above (page 15 f.). To these I would add the following:

arguo (*argumentor* appears only in *V. E.*), *manifestus, sic* (fewer in *V. E.* i than later).

V. E. and *Ep. x*, according to the hypothesis that I am following, were separated by twelve years or more. We shall therefore not expect to find many significant peculiarities in which they agree against the other works. The following, however, may be mentioned:

Affinitas, alias, alternus, breviter, congruus, ergo (In *V. E.* and *Ep. x* *ergo* is almost always postpositive. In *A. T.* and *M.* Dante shows a preference for initial *ergo*, especially in *A. T.* and *M. ii*. When it is used postpositively in *A. T.* and *M.*, the part preceding is almost always a minor word, e.g. *cum, ubi, si, est, dico*. In the earlier works the usage is freer in this respect; e.g. *oportuit, rationabiliter, praesumpsit, trilingues*, etc. in *V. E.*; *praefereus, differt, dividitur, vidit*, in *Ep. x*), **generalis, generaliter, hucusque, libet, plerumque, postea, praelibo**(arg.), **praelereo, primordium, que** (rare in Dante except in poetry or in poetically flavored prose, such as *V. E. i* [twenty-two times], *ii* [ten times], *M. ii* [twenty-seven times, of which nineteen are quotations], *Ep. vi* [seven times]). It is not strange that *que* does not occur in *A. T.*; in *M. iii* it occurs only twice. *Ep. x* with eight instances conforms to *V. E. ii*), **quidni, quod** with the indicative in a clause of result (see above, page 19), **quoque** (cf. *que*. Found in *Ecl.*, twice; *V. E.*, fifteen times; *Ep. x*, twice; none in *A. T.* or *M.* except three in *M. ii*), **recordor, sector** (arg.), **trado** ("set down," "give," deriving from the meaning "hand down," which we find in *M.*: *ut Lucas in Evangelio suo tradit*. Cf. *V. E.*: *Volentes igitur modum tradere quo*, etc., and *Ep. x*: *Volentes igitur introductionem tradere*, etc.).

From the above occurrences one could never prove that *V. E.* and *Ep. x* were written at the same time. They are useful indications, however, that the two works are by the same author.

We have noticed before the significance of coincidences between *A.T.* and *V.E.* if, as is well-nigh certain, Moncetti was not familiar with the latter work. To those already given I may add the following, which, as with the list just given, indicate identity of authorship though not adjacent dates of composition.

Accido, aequivocatio, artificialis, cognitio, consimilis, *contra* (arg.), diversifico, diversimode, diversitas, excellentia (cf. *excellens* etc. in *V.E.*), *donec*, identitas, *instruo*, praescio, quasi "almost" (*V.E.* i. 8. 34; cf. *A.T.* 19. 60, 63), rationabilis, refert, regularis, resulto, stultitia, ultra adv., *versus* prep.

The following coincidences between *V.E.* and *M.* are worth noticing :

Abhorreo, absurdus, accidens, actio, *adeo* adv., adiutorium, aequalis, aliqu-aliter, antequam, ascisco, astruo, attestor, beneplacitum, converto (arg.), distinguo (arg.), *dubito*, *dubius*, dummodo, dupliciter, edoceo, elicio (arg.), enucleo (arg.), expresse, *facile* adv., gradatim, informo, ingredior, innotesco, intentatus, *iterum*, manifeste, medium (arg.), mensura (arg.), *mensuro*, minime, modo, necessario, nemo, nuncupo, *obicio*, *obiectum*, *paucus*, *plerique*, *prae*, praeallegatus, praesertim, *primum*, priusquam, probatio, procul dubio, *prorsus*, *qualiter*, quodammodo, rectius, regula, resumo (arg.), *singularis*, solutio, speculatio, *statim*, *subsisto*, *testor*, *testimonium*, *ubicumque*, *ullus*, *unicus*, *unquam*.

Once more, while this list shows significant coincidences in minor usages which bespeak a common authorship, one could not prove from them that the two works were written in close succession. Some of the peculiarities are, as noted, found in other works as well, and the number of those that remain is no greater proportionally than that given for *V.E.* and *A.T.*, which is not one third the length of *M.* There is thus no confirmation here of Wicksteed's theory as to the date of *M.* I can add that though *V.E.* i and ii show individual differences, just as the books of *M.* do, there is nothing to indicate that, as some have supposed, they were written in different periods.

Turning now to *Ep.* x, we find just as with its general vocabulary, tested by words beginning with A, so with the minor peculiarities in question, that the individuality of the author is shown by certain words or usages which occur mainly or only here. The list is :

causo, circumlocutio, circumloquor, connaturalitas, consideratio, consonanter, consuesco, convertibilis (arg.), corporalis, credulitas, definitivus, descriptivus, digressivus, dispar, divisivus, doctrinalis, dogma, duplum, excellentior (cf. *excellens* etc. in *V.E.*), excessivus, excessus, executivus, existentia, exordior,

expono (arg.), expositio, exterminium, fictivus, formabilis, formativus, formula, improbativus, *incertitudo*, inchoo, 'infinitus,' insinuo, investigatio, literalis, literaliter, metaphorismus, negotium (phil.), nimis, nullatenus, obvio, percenseo, persaepeius, polysemus, positivus, possibilitas, *posterius*, praenunciatio, 'primarius,' probativus, risibilis (phil.), sempiterno vb., sententio vb., seorsim, subtilis, suppositio, transumptivus, votivus. A fondness for adjectives in *ivus* (*tivus*) appears in *Ep.* x, with which only *M.* may be compared in this respect.

I have noted only few coincidences between *Ep.* x and *A.T.* not elsewhere found, and owing to the brevity of these works we should not expect many.

The following are the most significant :

adaequo, designo, ad evidentiam dicendorum, ethica, magnitudo, materialis.

For *Ep.* x and *M.* there is a much longer list, from which, however, we could not infer that the dates of these two works lay in close proximity.

Allegorice, *amplio*, antecedens n., aperte, assigno, assumptio (arg.), *at*, causo, compendiose, competit, connecto, defectus, devenio (arg.), discurro, dispositio, *docceo*, elongo, essentia, *exprimo*, factum, forsitan (cf. *forte* etc. in V.E.), incorruptibilis, infinitum, intellectivus, *intellectualis*, intelligentia, *introitus* (arg.), intuitus, *iuxta*, licentio, *liquet*, manifestatio, mediate, *moralis*, mysticus, nequaquam, notitia, perduco (*ad vitam aeternam* *M.*, *ad statum felicitatis* *Ep.* x), practicus, praeemineo, praeeminentia, praefigo, processus (arg.), *propterea*, prosequor (arg.), *quinimmo*, relativum, *saepe*, salutatio, specialis, speculativus, *suadeo*, subicio (arg.), *supra* adv.

I have found no significant evidence whatsoever from stylistic peculiarities against the genuineness of *Ep.* x.

The individual peculiarities of *A.T.* are :

certior (cf. *certitudo* *M.*, *A.T.*), circiter, citissime, *citra*, concupiscibilis, confingo, continue, *demonstratio* (*M.*), *demonstro* (*M.*), disco, disputo (cf. *disputatio* *M.*, *A.T.*), exaro, homogeneous, idealiter (cf. *idea* *M.*), imaginatio, imaginor, imitabilis (cf. *imitatio* etc. in V.E.), impossibilitas, 'incomprehensibilis,' indiscussus, indubitabiliter (cf. *indubitabilis* *M.*), inductio, innatus, inobedientia (phil.), membrum (arg.), miscibilis, mixtio, mobilis (cf. *mobile* *M.*, *A.T.*), neuter (arg.), obedibilis (phil.), obedio (phil.), ostensivus (cf. *ostensive* *M.*), potentia-tus, privatio, probabiliter (cf. *probabilis* *M.*), qualifico, restringo (arg.), *sensitivus*, substo, sufficiens, terminabilis, uniformiter (cf. *uniformis* *M.* and *A.T.*), *virtualis* (*virtuo*, *virtuosius*, only in *M.* and *A.T.*).

It will be noticed that about a fourth of these words appear also or have analogues in *M.* Coming now to a complete, or nearly complete, list of coincidences between *A.T.* and *M.*, one cannot fail to be impressed by its length and significance.

admitto (arg.), **adverto**, **aequaliter**, **aequinoctialis**, **alibi**, **ambo**, **apud** (cf. *apud negantes divinam bonitatem*, *apud oblique politizantes*, *M.*, and *apud recte philosophantes A.T.*), **certitudo**, **circulatio**, **complexionatus**, **conclusio**, **confirmitas**, **consequentia**, **declaro**, **deorsum**, **destruo** (arg.), **determinatio**, **determino**, **dispensator**, **dispenso**, **disputatio**, **dissolvo** (arg.), **distinctio** (arg.), **documentum**, **efficacia** (arg.), **efficiens** (phil.), **ens**, **ex** (is rare in *V.E.* and *Ep. x* and is used only four times in the former, never in the latter, in argumentative phrases, as *ut ex praemissis manifestum est*. But in *A.T.* there are fourteen instances of *ex* in this sense, while the occurrences in the different books of *M.* are more numerous still. The phrase *ex parte* 'with respect to' [e.g. *ex parte boni . . . ex parte vero mali*] is found only in *A.T.* and *M.* The phrase *ex notioribus nobis* [used of drawing an inference] is found in *A.T.* 20. 20 and *Ep. v.* 122), **excludo** (arg.), **experientia**, **facilis** (*facile est A.T.*, *de facili M.*), **facillime**, **fallo**, **falsitas**, **figura** (*per primam* or *secundam figuram*), **finalis**, **fundo** vb. (arg.), **generabilis**, **genero**, **ibidem**, **includo**, **influentia**, **infra** adv. (*ut infra patebit M.*, *A.T.*), **inquisitio** (*inquiro* in all four works), **instantia**, **insto** (arg.), **insum**, **insuper**, **item** (arg.), **maior** (arg.), **manifestissimus**, **melius est**, **mendacium** (arg.), **minor** (arg.), **mobile** (cf. *mobilis A.T.*), **multoties**, **naturaliter**, **necesse**, **notus**, **nullus** adj. ("nothing worth," as *dico quod sua probatio nulla est* and *et sic . . . instantia nulla est M.*; *sed talis instantia nulla est A.T.*), **opinio**, **opino**, **particularis** (cf. *particulariter*, *particulo*, *M.*), **possibilis**, **potentia** = δύναμις (cf. *potentiatu* *A.T.*), **potissime**, **potissimus**, **praedicare** (arg.), **principalis** (arg.), **prohibeo**, **proportio**, **propositio**, **propter primum** (*propter primam partem Ep. x*), **quaestio**, **recipio** (phil.; *in quantum propria natura [natura rei] recipere potest [recipit] M.*, *A.T.*), **relinquitur quod**, **removeo** (arg.), **secundum quid**, **solvo** (arg.), **sophisticus**, **subiaceo** (phil.), **subiectus** (phil.), **subtiliter** (cf. *subtilis Ep. x*, *subtilius V.E.*), **suppono** (arg.), **sylogismus**, **tango** (arg., *quod [ut] superius tangebatur M.*, *A.T.*), **theoremata**, **totalis** (*totaliter* in all four), **ultra** prep., **uniformis** (cf. *uniformiter A.T.*), **unitas**, **universalis**, **valde**, **virtuo** (*virtuans M.*, *virtuatus A.T.*; cf. *specificatus M.*, *spirituatus V.E.*), **virtuosius**, **vis** (arg.).

This is too long a list of coincidences, it seems to me, to explain merely by the fact that *A.T.* and *M.* are nearer in theme to one another than to the other works. Exact statistics in a matter of this sort are impossible, but it is safe to say that the number of significant coincidences with *M.* in *A.T.* is twice that in *Ep. x*, and twice that in *V.E.*; this latter reckoning, further, should be more than doubled since *V.E.* is more than twice

as long as *A.T.* I am tempted, therefore, to regard as the explanation not merely the fact that Dante at two different periods argues abstrusely and hence falls upon the same terms; *M.* ii is quite as poetical in feeling as *V.E.*, and yet it conforms in these peculiarities to the style of the other books. My theory would be that Dante, impelled by the nature of the subject, employed logical terminology more systematically in *A.T.* than he had done before, and that he continued this style and developed it in the work that immediately followed, namely his last work, *M.* The mood in which he had written *A.T.* was still on him.¹

As with *Ep.* x, I have found no stylistic usages in *A.T.* which argue against the genuineness of that work.

Let us finally consider the peculiarities of *M.*, which not unnaturally outnumber those of any other work.

aut (until *M. vel* is far more frequent), *commode*, *compositio*, *comprobo*, *concorditer*, *conscribo*, *consequor* (arg.), *consonat*, *consonus* (cf. *consonanter* *Ep.* x), *constituo*, *constitutivus*, *construo* (arg.), *contradictorium*, *contrarietas*, *contrarior* (cf. *contrarius*, *contrarium*, *M.*, *V.E.*, *A.T.*), *cooperatio* (phil.), *corruptivus*, 'credibilis,' *declaratio* (cf. *declaro* especially in *M.* and *A.T.*), *definitio*, *destructive* (arg., cf. *destructio* *M.*, *Ep.* x, *A.T.*, *destruo* *M.*, *A.T.*), *deviatio*, *differentialis* (cf. *differentia* *M.*, *V.E.*, *A.T.*), *directivum*, *directivus*, *diremtio* (arg.), *dispono*, *distinctivus* (cf. *distinctio* *M.*, *A.T.*), *distribuo* (arg.), *distributio* (arg.), *dubitatio* (cf. *dubito* *M.*, *V.E.*, etc.), *efficax* (arg.), *efficacissimus* (cf. *efficacia*, *efficiens*, *M.*, *A.T.*, *efficio* *M.*, *V.E.*, *A.T.*), *erga*, *erro* (cf. *error* *M.*, *V.E.*, *Ep.* x, etc.), *evidens*, *evidentissime* (cf. *evidenter* *M.*, *V.E.*, *evidentia* *M.*, *V.E.*, *Ep.* x, *A.T.*), *executor*, *expressus* (cf. *expresse* *M.*, *V.E.*), *extensio* (phil.), *extremitas* (arg.), *de facili*, *facilius*, adv. (cf. *facile est* *A.T.*), *facile* adv. (*facilior* *M.*, *V.E.*, *Ep.* x, *facillime* *M.*, *A.T.*), *factibilis*, *falsus*, (*A.T.* etc., cf. *fallo* *M.*, *A.T.*, etc., *falsissimus* *V.E.*, *falsitas* *M.*, *A.T.*, etc.), *figuro* (cf. *figurate* *V.E.*), *finco*, *finitus* (phil.), *formale*, *formaliter*, *formo*, *forsan*, *fortasse* (cf. *forsitan* *M.*, *Ep.* x, etc., *fortassis* *V.E.* *forte* *V.E.* etc.), *fundamentalis*, *fundamentum* (cf. *fundo* arg., *M.*, *A.T.*), *habitualis* (phil.), *habitus* = *ἔξις* (used differently in *V.E.*), *iam* (arg., *M.*, *V.E.*?), *idea* (cf. *idealiter* *A.T.*), *illatio* (arg.), *immanifestus*, *imperfectus* (cf. *imperfecte* *V.E.*), *importo*, *imputo*, *inconveniens*, *incorruptibilitas* (cf. *incorruptibilis* *M.*, *Ep.* x), *incredibilis*, *indispositio*, *indispositus*, *indubitabilis* (cf. *indubitabiliter* *A.T.*), *inductivus* (cf. *inductio* *A.T.*), *infallibilis*, *infero* (arg.), *infra* prep. (cf. *infra* adv., *A.T.* etc.), *inopinabilis*, *inquam*, *intentio* (*A.T.* etc.), *interemptio* (arg.), *interemptivus*, *interimo* (arg.), *introduco*, *irrationabilis*, *irrefragabilis*, *iterum* (arg., *V.E.*?), *iuxta*, *logicalis*,

¹ I will not deny the possibility, suggested by Dr. Wilkins, that Dante began *M.* first and wrote it and *A.T.* at the same time.

logicus, longe, medio vb., *medium* (arg.), *memini*, *minoratio*, *narro* (cf. *narratio* Ep. x), *necessito* (cf. *necessitas* M., V.E., Ep. x, A.T., etc., *necessarius* M., V.E., A.T., etc., *necessario* M., V.E.), *nefas*, *negatio*, *nihilominus*, *nimitas*, *nondum*, *ob*, *oblique* (arg., cf. *obliquus* M., V.E.), *obsto* (only in *nulla vi* . . . *obstante*, *non obstante quod*), *omnino*, *operatio* (once in V.E.), *operativus*, *optime*, *ordino* (V.E., A.T., etc.), *ostensive* (cf. *ostensivus* A.T.), *otiose*, *otiosus* (phil.), *pariter et*, *partialis*, *particulariter*, *particulo* (cf. *particularis* M., A.T.), *patentissimus* (arg.), 'paulo,' *per prius*, *perago* (arg.), *perhibeo*, *persaepe* (cf. *persaepe* Ep. x), *perseitas*, *personalis* (cf. *persona* M., Ep. x, A.T.), *persuadentior*, *persuadeo*, *persuasor* (cf. *persuasio*, *persuasorie*, V.E.), *pertinaciter* (arg.), *pertingo* (phil.), *philosophicus* (cf. *philosophia* Ep. x, A.T., etc.), *placet* (as *ut Philosopho placet*, cf. *placuit* A.T. etc.), *pluralitas*, *plurimum* adv., 'porro,' *post* adv., *praedicatum* (cf. *praedico* M., A.T., etc.), *praeoperor*, *praeostendo*, *praepeditivus*, *praesentialiter*, *produco* (phil.), *productio*, *profecto*, *prohibitio*, *prohibitivus* (cf. *prohibeo* M., A.T.), *proprietas*, *proprius* adv., 'quamdiu,' *quatenus*, *quousque*, *realis*, *rectrix*, *recurso* (arg.), *redarguo*, *reduco* (arg., V.E., Ep. x, A.T., etc.; cf. *habere reduci* M., A.T.), *refello*, *refuto*, *regulatrix*, *renarro*, *resolvo* (arg.), *respective*, *rursus* (arg.), *sane*, *scriba* (cf. *scribo* M., Ep. x, A.T., etc.), *secundario* (cf. *secundarius* V.E.), *sortior* (arg.), *specialiter* (cf. *specialis* M., Ep. x), *specificatus*, *specto*, *sponte*, *stricte* (arg.), *stultum est*, *suasio* (cf. *suadeo* M., Ep. x, etc.), *subadsumo*, *subdo* (arg.), *subinfero* (arg.), *subito*, *subsequens* (arg.), *substantialis* (cf. *substantia* M., V.E., Ep. x, A.T.), *superficialiter*, *superfluitas*, *supernaturalis*, *sylogisticus*, *sylogizo* (cf. *sylogismus* M., Ep. iv, A.T., *sylogizator* Ep. v), *tandem*, *tantummodo*, *terminus* (arg.), *testis*, *testimonium* (M., V.E., etc.; cf. *testor* M., V.E., etc.), *theologica*, *theologicus*, *theologus*, *totidem*, *typice*, *typus*, *ultimo*, *ultimum*, *ultimus*, *universitas*, *universalior*, *universalis*, *universalissimus*, *universaliter*, *utinam*, *vici*, *volitivus*, *volo* (*velle* as noun), *voluntarie*, *voluntas*.

In proportion to its size, there are no more striking evidences of innovation in *M.* than in *V.E.*; but the innovation is of a different kind. Whereas in *V.E.*, as we have seen, Dante strives for the unusual and picturesque, in *M.* he starts with the ordinary vocabulary of the logician, which, according to my theory, he had just been using in *A.T.*, and then greatly develops that. Such a development is obvious from the foregoing lists, and I may further illustrate it by one striking example, — the uses of *patet*. The frequency of this word, in a variety of phrases, must, as Dr. Moore well remarks,¹ impress every reader of the Latin works of Dante. I will try to show also that these phrases form a crescendo.

Dante uses *pateo* in *V.E.* nine times. It is used either absolutely, or governs the infinitive, a *quod* clause, or an indirect question. It is found

¹ *Studies in Dante*, Second Series, p. 348.

in the following set phrases: *Et sic patet*, *Quare . . . patet*, *per quod patet*, *satis etiam patere videtur*, and with *ut*; *ut per inferiora patebit*. Not to notice one occurrence in *Ep.* iv and one in *Ed.* i, I pass to *Ep.* x, which has seventeen occurrences, a much larger proportion, with the same constructions as in *V.E.* and with set phrases as follows: *Et sic patet* (as in *V.E.*), *Et per hoc patet*, *Propter quod patet*, *Sic ergo patet*, *Patet ergo quomodo*, *Potest amodo patere quomodo*, and with *ut*; *ut patet de*, *ut patet per*. A dative is also used, as *Persaeptius inspicienti patebit*. *A.T.* has the largest proportion of occurrences, thirty-three in all, with the same construction as in *V.E.* and *Ep.* x. For phrases it has *Et sic patet* (*Ep.* x and *V.E.*), *Per quod patet* (as *V.E.*, but nowhere else), *sic igitur patet* (cf. *sic ergo patet* as *Ep.* x), *et quod* and the subjunctive preceding *patet*. Phrases with *ut* are especially cultivated: *ut patet*, *ut infra patebit*, *ut patet ad oculum*, *ut de se patet*, *ut patet per* (as *Ep.* x), *ut patet ex*, *ut patet in*, *ut patet intuenti* (cf. *inspicienti patebit*, *Ep.* x). In *M.* the occurrences for the different books are: i, seventeen times; ii, twelve times; iii, twenty-one times. This is a less number proportionately than for *A.T.*, but the usages are distinctly more varied. Of the constructions that have already appeared we find the following: *et sic patet*, *et per hoc patet*, *propter quod patet*, *sic ergo patet*, *et quod* with the subjunctive preceding *patet*, *ut patet*, *ut patet de*, *ut patet per*, *ut patet ex*, *ut patet in*, *ut patet* with a dative, *ut infra patebit*, *ut de se patet*. Besides these are *patet quia* (as well as *quod*), *patet igitur quod*, *ex quo patet*, *ex iis ergo . . . patet*, *hinc etiam patet*, *et hinc etiam patere potest*. To the *ut* phrases, *ut statim patebit* is added; *sicut patet* appears for the first time, likewise *quod patet*, *quod patet de levi*, *quod de se patet*. Clearly there is a natural development, though not a rigid arithmetical progression, in the use of *patet* from *V.E.* through *M.* The case is typical of what I am convinced is true of the style of *M.* in general.

Statistics, I would repeat, and especially statistics of stylistic peculiarities, are fraught with danger. They may at least serve as an imperfect symbol of the feeling which I have slowly formed about the works in question. Such a feeling on the part of the calculator of minutiae is to the calculator a most important element in the calculation, though it cannot be communicated directly.¹ From the evidence I have tried to set

¹ Compare what Dr. Moore says on this matter; *Studies in Dante*, Second Series, p. 355.

forth and from more that other readers of the Concordance may detect, I incline strongly to the belief that the chronological order of the four works we have been especially considering was *V.E.*, *Ep. x*, *A.T.*, *M.* Or at least, assuming this order, as some on other grounds have done, we may appeal to stylistic evidence for corroboration. Be that as it may, this evidence is enough to refute once and for all the hypothesis that *Ep. x* and *A.T.* are forgeries; coincidences so numerous and minute could have been vouchsafed a forger only by plenary inspiration, proceeding in this case from the Father of Lies. As that hypothesis fails, it follows as above stated, that *Ep. x* and *A.T.* are genuine works of Dante. The remaining letters are too brief to warrant definite conclusions, but I would state that I have found no certain evidence against the genuineness of any one of them. Various coincidences with peculiarities of the accepted works will be noted in the lists given above. A similar examination of the phraseology of Dante's Italian prose works might yield results of interest.

E. K. RAND

TWO NOTES ON THE *COMMEDIA*

1. INFERNO, XXXIV, 127-139

In the *Rivista d'Italia*, Vol. xiii, no. 5, p. 701, Francesco D'Ovidio, with his usual masterly clearness and ingenuity, discusses the passage from Lucifer's feet to the Island of Purgatory, showing that in all probability the "buca d'un sasso ch'egli [il ruscelletto] ha roso" refers only to the crust of the earth under the island (the roof of the cavity opposite Hell), and that the "entrammo" of l. 134 may mean simply "started" or "proceeded." The cavern into which Satan's feet project is vaguely indicated by the poet. D'Ovidio conceives it either as a vast conical pit similar in size and shape to Hell, or as a cylindrical hole extending straight from the circular floor (the "picciola spera" of l. 116) to the earth's outer rind. Judging from ll. 124-126, one naturally thinks of it as equal in volume to the Mountain of Purgatory; but the dimensions of that mountain cannot be determined with any approach to exactness. Down the sloping side—or the vertical wall—of the abyss, runs, according to D'Ovidio, the guiding streamlet, either in a zigzag course like a path up a precipice, or winding spirally round and round the cavity. Both the "natural burella" of l. 98 and the "loco" of l. 127 he takes as referring to this whole cavern.

Now it is to be noted that throughout the *Inferno* Dante exerts his utmost cleverness to confuse his reader concerning vertical distances, his purpose evidently being to heighten the realism of his literal narrative by dissimulating the physical impossibility of traversing several thousand miles, largely on foot, in twenty-four hours. In two cases he represents himself as transported, we know not how far, in a swoon; in three, he dismisses the descent in a word or two, keeping the reader's attention fixed on the horizontal shelves; in one, he describes a downward flight, in which all sense of distance is lost, on the back of a dragon. But the most curious instance is that of the transfer from the eighth circle to the ninth, at the end of Canto xxxi. The giant Antæus, he says, picks up the two poets on the edge of the eighth and sets them down on the

floor of the ninth; only his stoop is described, as he bends first to take and then to deposit his passengers, and one would never imagine, from this passage, that he left his place. Yet Antæus is only about eighty feet tall, and the two circles must, according to what Dante tells us elsewhere, be separated by a precipice some miles in height.

Bearing in mind this tendency of our author, we may, I think, by carrying still further the line of argument so ably employed by D'Ovidio, remove at least two difficulties that remain even in his interpretation. How can a "place" that contains a part of Beelzebub be described as "remote" from him?

Loco è laggiù da Belzebù remoto
Tanto quanto la tomba si distende.

Secondly, how can we account for a brook that descends a steep — perhaps vertical — precipice in a gentle zigzag or spiral, instead of pouring precipitously down? In ll. 97-99,

Non era camminata di palagio
Là 'v' eravam, ma *natural burella*
Ch' avea mal suolo, e di lume disagio,

Dante gives us a hint of a dark, disagreeable space on the other side of Hell; and he refers to it again, incidentally, in l. 125:

Per fuggir lui lasciò qui *il loco voto*.

After that, as I believe, he tells us nothing more about it, deliberately skipping, between lines 126 and 127, his whole ascent from Lucifer's feet to the earth's crust, and leaving the intervening space figuratively as well as literally in the dark. With l. 127 he takes a fresh start, and from this point on describes only the passage through the crust. The very phraseology, "*Loco è laggiù,*" etc., indicates that he is speaking of something not previously mentioned, and that the "*loco*" of l. 125, which designates the same place as the "*natural burella*" of l. 98, is not identical with the "*loco*" of l. 127. If this be admitted, the "*tomba*" of l. 128 may be understood as referring to the great void under the Island of Purgatory: "There is a place down yonder (on the further side of the globe, beneath the surface) as far away from Beelzebub as his sepulcher stretches" — that is, separated from him by the whole depth of the grave he dug for himself in his fall.

2. PURGATORIO, XXXI, 144

When Beatrice finally unveils her face, in the Garden of Eden, Dante asks: "What poet could depict thee

. . . qual tu paresti
Là dove armonizzando il ciel t'adombra,
Quando nell' aere aperto ti solvesti?"

This seems to be generally understood, at the present day, as meaning "where Heaven, with its harmony, is thine image" — an interpretation which is satisfactory enough until one begins to question the significance of "là dove." Whether we take this phrase as "where" or "when," it appears to have no particular appropriateness. Heaven is always and everywhere harmonious and therefore a fit symbol of Beatrice. One does not see why its fitness should be restricted to the Terrestrial Paradise or to this occasion.

Another explanation, frequently proposed in the past, would make the line read: "Where harmonious Heaven encompassed thee," *adombra* being used for *adombrava*, as the present replaces the imperfect (in the rime) in several similar passages in the *Commedia*. The chief objection to this view is the apparent incongruity of the word *adombra*: the idea of Heaven as a canopy or background for Beatrice, as she stands on the chariot against the sky, is suitable and artistic, but why should the bright vault be said to "shadow" her? Possibly an answer may be found in the authors from whom Dante derived, in part, his conception of the figure.

In the *Convivio* Dante tells us that one of the two works with which he began the study of philosophy was the treatise *De Consolatione Philosophiae* of Boethius; and, in fact, we see abundant evidence of the influence of this masterpiece on his ideas, his form of expression, and his representation of Lady Philosophy in the *Convivio* and of Beatrice in the *Purgatorio*. An Italian to whom Dante considered himself vastly indebted was Brunetto Latini, who "taught him how man makes himself eternal." Latini's *Tesoretto* not only presents the same general literary type as the *Commedia*, being a didactic poem in allegorical form, but also offers a few resemblances of detail. As a prelude to his vision, Brunetto loses himself in a strange wood (ii, 75-78), where he suddenly comes to his senses (iii, 1), and presently lifts up his eyes to the mountains. It may

be noted, further, that in iv, 18, he uses the word *consumare* in the same sense in which Dante, to the confusion of commentators, employs it in the *Inferno*, ii, 41.

When Lady Philosophy shows herself to the imprisoned and recreant Boethius (I, Pr. i), she appears at times to touch the sky with her head: "Nam nunc quidem ad communem sese hominum cohibebat, nunc vero pulsare cælum summi verticis cacumine videbatur; quæ cum altius caput extulisset, ipsum etiam cælum penetrabat respicientiumque hominum frustrabatur intuitum." This passage Brunetto Latini evidently remembered when he described the aspect of Lady Nature, as she reveals herself to the lost exile:

Talor toccava il cielo
Sì che pareva suo velo.

And both of these figures would seem to have been present in Dante's mind when he depicted Lady Revelation, her head enveloped in sky,—

There where the harmonious Heaven is thine only veil.

C. H. GRANDGENT

AN UNRECORDED SEVENTEENTH CENTURY VERSION OF THE *VITA DI DANTE* OF LEONARDO BRUNI

According to the bibliographers, the *Vita di Dante* (written in 1436) of Leonardo Bruni (otherwise known as Leonardo Aretino) was only twice printed in the seventeenth century; namely, at Perugia in 1671 (the *editio princeps*), together with the *Vita del Petrarca* (first printed in the edition of the *Canzoniere* issued at Padua in 1472 by Martinus de Septem Arboribus), from a manuscript in the possession of Giovanni Cinelli; and at Florence (together with the *Vita del Petrarca*) in the following year (1672), from a manuscript belonging to Francesco Redi. No mention is made of any other printed edition before 1722, in which year Redi's edition of the two lives was reproduced at Naples in a volume entitled, *Dialoghi d'uomini grandi ne i Campi Elisi, applicati ai costumi del presente secolo, dell'autore del 'Telemaco,' tradotti dal francese; con le vite di Dante e del Petrarca scritte da Lionardo Aretino, cavate da un manoscritto antico della Libreria di Francesco Redi e confrontate con altri testi a penna. . . .* (In Napoli, per Francesco Ricciardo, 1722.) The two lives were next printed in the first volume of the first issue of Volpi's edition of the *Divina Commedia* published by Comino at Padua in 1727, this being their first appearance in an edition of the *Commedia*.¹

The *Vita di Dante*, however, though the fact appears hitherto to have escaped the notice both of bibliographers and of Dantists, was printed a third time in the seventeenth century, within seven years of the publication of the *editio princeps*. It made its appearance on this occasion

¹ See Haym, *Biblioteca Italiana*, 162. 4 (ed. 1771); Gamba, *Testi di Lingua*, No. 1058 (ed. 1839); Galletti, *Philippi Villani Liber de civitatis Florentiae famosis civibus . . . et de Florentinorum litteratura principes fere synchroni scriptores* (Florentiae, 1847), pp. 43-44; and A. Solerti, *Le Vite di Dante, Petrarca e Boccaccio scritte fino al secolo decimosesto* (Milano, s. a.), p. 97. See also T. W. Koch, *Catalogue of the Cornell Dante Collection*, vol. i, p. 152, where a list is given of more than forty editions of the *Commedia* in which Bruni's *Vita di Dante* is reprinted. A careful reprint of the Redi (1672) text of both the lives was issued with the *Second Annual Report* (1883) of the Dante Society.

under somewhat curious conditions, and in a version which differs very considerably in places from the traditional text.

In 1678 was published, with the imprint of Castellana (actually Geneva),¹ a work in three quarto volumes, entitled *La Bilancia Politica di tutte le Opere di Traiano Boccalini*.² The first two volumes of this work, which is described by Haym³ as "edizione rara," and as having been placed on the Index,⁴ consist of Boccalini's *Osservazioni Politiche* on Tacitus,⁵ with the *Avvertimenti* of Louis du May.⁶ The third volume consists of forty letters ascribed to Boccalini, and edited by Gregorio Leti,⁷ two of which (Nos. XXI, XXII) contain Boccalini's *Pietra di Paragone* (first published at Venice in 1615), while seven others (Nos. XXIII-XXIX) contain a *Compendio* of his *Ragguagli di Parnaso* (first published at Venice in 1612-1613). Among the remaining letters are several on literary subjects, two of which are addressed to Pietro Anelli of Naples. The first of these (No. VI), we are told,⁸ was written by Boccalini in response to a request from his correspondent for an account of the life and works of Dante; and the second (No. XIII) is alleged to have been written in response to a like request for information concerning the lives of Petrarch and Boccaccio.⁹ In each case the desired

¹ See D'Ancona e Bacci, *Manuale della Letteratura Italiana*, vol. iii, p. 538 (ed. 1895).

² Per Giovanni Hermano Widerhold.

³ *Biblioteca Italiana*, 499. 13 (ed. 1771).

⁴ "Vien registrato fra i Libri proibiti, forse per la libertà del May in materia di Religione, per riguardo della quale si fece lecito di alterare il testo del Boccalini."

⁵ Vol. i contains "Parte prima, dove si tratta delle osservazioni politiche sopra i sei Libri degli Annali di Cornelio Tacito"; vol. ii contains "Parte seconda, nella quale si comprendono le Osservazioni, et Considerationi politiche sopra il primo Libro delle Storie di Cornelio Tacito, et sopra la Vita di Giulio Agricola scritta dal medesimo Autore"; the statement, "Il tutto illustrato dagli Avvertimenti del Cavalier Ludovico Du May," appears on the title-page of both parts.

⁶ Louis du May (d. 1681), French Protestant historian and publicist.

⁷ "Parte terza, contenente alcune Lettere Politiche et Historiche del medesimo Autore, Ricovrate, ristabilite, e raccomandate, dalla diligenza, e cura di Gregorio Leti."

⁸ In the heading to the letter, which runs as follows: "Al Signor Pietro Anelli, Napoli. Questo Signore scrisse una sua al Boccalini supplicandolo di dargli qualche ragguaglio dell'opere, e vita del Dante, da cui ne ottenne la seguente risposta."

⁹ This letter is headed: "Al Signor Pietro Anelli, Napoli. Havendo ricevuto questo Signore la Vita di Dante, speditale dal Signor Boccalini, restò talmente pago della lettura, che di nuovo il supplicò di volerlo favorire à mandargli anche quella del Petrarca, e del Boccaccio da cui restò sodisfatto."

information is supplied not from Boccacini's own resources, but from the lives of Dante and Petrarch by Leonardo Bruni, both of which are transcribed, so it is claimed, from originals, written apparently by the hand of Bruni himself, in the possession of Boccacini.¹

On glancing through Boccacini's alleged transcript of the *Vita di Dante*, I was at once struck by the unfamiliarity of certain phrases, which I did not remember as occurring in the traditional version of Bruni's life of Dante; and on comparing the Boccacini transcript with the text of the *editio princeps*, as printed by Angelo Solerti in his critical edition of *Le Vite di Dante, Petrarca e Boccaccio scritte fino al secolo decimosesto*, I found that the two versions were by no means identical. A careful collation of the two revealed the fact that the Boccacini version, while embodying practically the whole of the traditional text, contained throughout a number of additions and amplifications which are not represented in any of the other printed versions. On turning to the letter containing the *Vita del Petrarca* I found that in this case also variations existed between the Boccacini version and the accepted text, the variations being, as in the *Vita di Dante*, chiefly in the form of expansions and additions.²

The question now presented itself how far credence could be given to the statements attributed to Boccacini as to the alleged source from

¹ At the beginning of Letter VI the writer, after mentioning the lives of Dante by Boccaccio and by Leonardo Bruni (or Leonardo Aretino, as he calls him), says: "Come io me ne trovo di detto Aretino una copia della compositione la mando à V. S. della stessa maniera, et eccola appunto"; at the end of the letter he says: "Hò stimato ancora à proposito di mandargli la copia, ugualissima all' originale dell' Aretino che n'è l'Auttoe." At the beginning of Letter XIII he writes: "Mi trovo appunto nella mia biblioteca di mano dell' Aretino che scrisse la vita che già gli mandai del Dante, anche quella del Petrarca et un poco del Boccaccio."

² It may be observed here that a reference to this version of Bruni's *Vita del Petrarca* is given by Solerti in the note at the head of his reprint of the *Vita* in the work mentioned above. He says: "Non va tralasciato di notare che essa è pure riferita intera, e con qualche varietà, in una lettera di Pietro Anelli di Napoli inserita ne *La bilancia politica* ecc. di Traiano Boccacini, Castellana, per G. A. Widerhold, 1678, Vol. III, p. 95." It does not appear, however, that Solerti had the curiosity to examine this version, otherwise he would hardly have dismissed it without further remark, nor would he have described the letter as having been written *by* instead of *to* Pietro Anelli. That he was unaware of the existence of the Boccacini version of the *Vita di Dante* is evident from the fact that he makes no mention of it whatever in the elaborate bibliographical note prefixed to his reprint of that life.

which these versions of the two lives were derived. In the first place, were the letters containing them actually written by Boccalini? Doubts on this point were at once suggested by the discovery that both letters, though signed with Boccalini's name in full ("Affettionatissimo et obligatissimo Servidore, Traiano Boccalini"), are dated several years after his death. Boccalini died in 1613. The first letter (No. VI) is dated "Firenze 3 Marzo 1617"; the second (No. XIII) is dated "Firenze 17 Agosto 1618." Consequently, either these dates are incorrect, or the letters were not written by Boccalini.¹

What, then, is the history of these letters, which were now given to the world for the first time sixty-five years after the death of the alleged writer? On the title-page they are described as having been "Ricovrate, ristabilite, e raccomandate dalla diligenza, e cura di Gregorio Leti." Gregorio Leti, who was born at Milan in 1630, was a voluminous writer, for the most part on historical subjects, his published works amounting altogether to something like one hundred volumes. In 1657 he became a Calvinist, and, after marrying a Calvinist wife, in 1660 he went to reside at Geneva, where he remained for twenty years. Subsequently he visited England, where he was at first handsomely received; but the publication of his *Teatro Britannico* (a history of Great Britain), certain passages in which gave offense in high quarters, led to his expulsion. He thereupon took refuge in Amsterdam, where he died in 1701. The character of Leti's writings may be judged from the following account given by Tiraboschi in his *Storia della Letteratura Italiana*²:

Pochi autori sono stati fecondi di opere al par del Leti. . . . Oltre l'Italia, la Francia ancora, la Fiandra, la Gran Brettagna, l'Impero, la città di Ginevra, le reali case di Brandeburgo e di Sassonia, ebber da esso le loro Storie, e nondimeno non crederono di esser molto onorate da un tale scrittore, il quale volendo scriver moltissimo, dovea necessariamente scrivere con gran fretta; e volendo piacere a quelli a onor de' quali scriveva, poco curavasi di dire il vero, ma sol di dire ciò che potesse renderlo ad essi caro e gradito. Quindi in vano si cerca nelle Storie del Leti la sincerità e l'esattezza; e oltre ciò lo stile

¹ An examination of the remaining letters showed that five others are dated, of which four are signed with Boccalini's name. Of these, two only are dated before the year of Boccalini's death, namely Nos. I and XI, which are dated respectively, "Roma 8 Maggio 1612," and "Roma 22 Novembre 1605"; the remaining three, namely Nos. IX, X, and XX (of which the last is unsigned) being dated (also from Rome), "13 Novembre 1616," "26 Luglio 1622," and "19 Dicembre 1625."

² Ed. di Milano, 1824, tom. viii, pp. 582-583.

ne è sì prolisso e diffuso, che non vi ha più efficace rimedio a conciliare il sonno. La mordacità e la satira singolarmente contro la corte di Roma e contro la Religione Cattolica è il solo pregio che ne rende care ad alcuni le opere, le quali senza questo bell'ornamento rimarrebbero affatto dimenticate. Vuolsi ch'ei medesimo si vantasse di scrivere ciò che gli pareva più opportuno a ricreare i lettori, e che avesse l'impudenza di dire alla Delfina di Francia, la quale chiedevagli se vero fosse tutto ciò ch'egli avea scritto nella Vita di Sisto V, che una cosa ben immaginata era migliore e più piacevole che la verità.

This description of a writer who avowedly, when it suited his purpose, did not hesitate to substitute fiction for fact, is not exactly calculated to inspire confidence in Leti's methods as an editor, especially when coupled with the announcement on the title-page quoted above as to the part played by him in "recovering, restoring, and emending" these alleged letters of Boccalini. Our confidence is not increased when we learn from the editor himself the circumstances in which the letters were ushered into the world. It appears that they were included with the other works of Boccalini in the *Bilancia Politica* at the instance of Widerhold, the publisher, who in a letter addressed to Leti and printed at the beginning of the volume,¹ after speaking at length of the manuscript from which he had printed the contents of his first two volumes, writes:

Hora havendo inteso che V. S. tiene alcune lettere del Boccalini, vengo con questa mia à supplicarla di volermene partecipare il Manuscritto, quanto più sarà possibile purgato, per aggiungerlo con la stampa dell'altro, e come il suo parere è stato da me ricercato il primo, desiderarei che fosse anche nel fine il totale compimento dell'Opera, so che V. S. non vorrà che il publico resti privo di questo gran beneficio, ed io defraudato di quell'affetto che m'ha sempre testimoniato, da che hebbi l'honore d'esser gli discepolo.

In his reply, which is also prefixed to this same volume,² Leti expresses himself on the subject of Widerhold's request for some letters of Boccalini for publication as follows:

Circa alla domanda che V. S. mi fa d'alcune Lettere del gran Boccalini che tengo appresso di me, per inserirle all'altra opera, gli dechiaro con verità che bramo corrispondere con tutto l'animo al suo desiderio, e però con sincerità gli aperirò tutto il mio cuore: è verissimo ch'io mi trovo alcune lettere Manuscrutte del Signor Boccalini, ma sepolte trà una voragine di scritture, che quasi mi sarà impossibile di poterle senza la perdita di lungo tempo intracciare;

¹ "Lettera scritta dal Signor Gio. Herm. Widerhold al Signor Gregorio Leti."

² "Risposta al Signor Gio. Herm. Widerhold, Mercante Libraro."

oltre à questo sono così logorate dal tempo, e dalla pioggia che hanno sofferte nel tempo de' miei viaggi, che difficil cosa sarà d'investigarne il senso, mentre mi ricordo¹ benissimo che molte pagine son quasi del tutto scancellate; à segno che converrà cercarne un senso corrispondente à quel poco che si può leggere.

Ma quel che più importa, e che mi dà il più a pensare, [è] che trà le Lettere del Signor Traiano Boccalini, se ne trovano molte del Signor Ridolfo suo figliuolo, e come in molte manca la sottoscrizione, non è possibile di poter distinguere quelle che sono del Signor Traiano, ò del Signor Ridolfo, così anche sono mescolate, e confuse insieme.

In tanto per servirla dimane à sera subito che sarò di ritorno a Casa darò principio à cercarle, e trovate le copiarò di mia mano, per riparare col mio à quel tanto ch'è scancellato, e quando l'haverò posto all'ordine dovuto, senza alcuna confusione, non mancherò di rimmetterli il tutto per sodisfare a' suoi desiderii. Sò che molti crederanno per certo che tali Lettere non sono state mai del Boccalini, et in fatti vi sarà nel mezzo un gran mescuglio del mio, e fuori sette lettere che posso testimoniare con sicurezza, che sono del Signor Traiano, le altre sono ò del Signor Ridolfo ò mie, ad ogni modo per torre ogni confusione si pubblicheranno tutte sotto il nome del Signor Boccalini, supplicando V. S. di fare una protesta di mia parte al Lettore, che trovando qualche cosa di buono, che non dubito, che ne dia assolutamente la gloria al Signor Boccalini, et al contrario son contento che sopra di me si scarichi tutta la censura di quel tanto che non aggradirà al senso d'esso Lettore, dalla cui grande benignità mi comprometto però che troverà perdono questo mio grand'ardire di mescolare la sconciatura dello mio stile, con la purissima penna d'un tanto huomo; ma spero che sarò degno d'iscusa, mentre protesto che non per altro aggiungo qualche cosa del mio, che per servir d'ombre acciò maggiormente s'accendesse l'altrui animo à voltarsi verso il sole della gran virtù del Boccalini.

Queste Lettere benchè necessariamente converrà rifarne molte, per esser come ho detto scancellate, e logorate in buona parte, con tutto ciò non potranno che aggiungere curiosità maggiore alla Lettera, nè altro in alcune vi sarà di differenza che nello stile; mentre il Boccalini stette sempre sù il medesimo stile di scrivere alto, et elevato, poichè scrivendo materie politiche non voleva renderle comunali ad ogni uno, contentandosi d'essere inteso da' più dotti; et intelligenti, dove che io procurerò di trasferire queste Lettere in uno stile historico, che possa senza difficoltà alcuna essere inteso da tutti: tanto più che lo stesso Boccalini non costumava alle volte di scrivere ad amici che familiarmente come l'osservo in trè, ò quattro Lettere che tengo di sua propria mano, che farò vedere à V. S. . . .

¹ Leti was away from home at the time of writing, as appears from Widerhold's letter, who says he shall approach Leti personally "quando sarà di ritorno," and also from what Leti himself says further on.

We have here, then, a frank avowal on the part of the editor, that of the forty letters printed in this volume he claims only seven to have been actually written by Boccacini;¹ that of the rest, some were written by Boccacini's son Ridolfo, and some by Leti himself, while others were re-written "in uno stile storico" by Leti, and to others he contributed a considerable admixture of his own composition; and that, these facts notwithstanding, "in order to avoid confusion," Boccacini's name was attached to all alike.

After this cynical confession, the shamelessness of which is in keeping with Leti's character as described by Tiraboschi and other literary historians, it is manifestly impossible, quite apart from the question of dates, to accept the letters containing the lives of Dante and Petrarch as authentic compositions of Boccacini, at any rate in the form in which they are here printed; and it is of course equally impossible to accept unreservedly the statements in the letters as to the manuscript sources of the lives in question.

Whether Boccacini had any hand in the composition of these two letters, and, if so, to what extent, it is not easy to determine. It is quite possible that he may in fact have possessed a manuscript of Bruni's, and may have transcribed the two *Vite* in some such letters to a literary correspondent, and that these, having come into Leti's hands, were afterwards "worked over" by him prior to publication. On the other hand, having regard to Leti's avowed unscrupulousness in literary matters, and in view of his own statements to Widerhold in the letter above quoted, it would not be beyond the bounds of probability to assume that these letters, among others, were concocted by Leti for the purpose of satisfying the demand on the part of the publisher of the *Bilancia Politica* for epistolary compositions from the hand of Boccacini. Leti's reason for affixing Boccacini's signature to letters not written by Boccacini has already been given in his own words. His motive for appending a date which is incompatible with the signature is not apparent. Possibly this was his method of indicating indirectly to the reader that these letters were among those referred to in his communication to Widerhold as not having in fact been the composition of Boccacini.

¹ It will be noted that Leti carefully abstains from specifying which were the seven letters as to which he was able "testimoniare con sicurezza che sono del Signor Traiano."

Leti, if he were the author of these particular letters,¹ would have found the material for them in the shape of Bruni's lives of Dante and Petrarch ready to his hand in the editions mentioned above as having been printed at Perugia and Florence in 1671 and 1672. The claim to have printed the lives from a manuscript of the author, and the additions and amplifications introduced into the text, would be characteristic devices on the part of an adept literary confectioner like Leti, in order to conceal his unblushing appropriation, and publication as original, of matter which had in fact already been before the public for several years.

However, be the author of the letters Boccalini or Leti, these versions of Bruni's two lives, whatever the actual source from which they were derived, have a peculiar interest of their own, which, coupled with the fact already mentioned that the work in which they are contained is one of considerable rarity, may be held a sufficient justification for reprinting them here.

In order that the additions and amplifications introduced in the Boccalini versions (as they may for convenience be called) may be easily distinguished, these are here printed in italics. Minor variations from the text of the printed editions of 1671 and 1672, that is, from the text of the Cinelli (C.) and Redi (R.) manuscripts respectively, are registered in an *apparatus criticus* at the foot of the page. Insignificant differences in the matter of spelling have been ignored.

The Boccalini version of the life of Petrarch, which, though, as already mentioned, its existence has been recorded by Solerti, is practically unknown, is included with that of Dante, inasmuch as the two lives are in a sense complementary, Bruni having appended to his life of Petrarch an interesting parallel between the two poets, which is almost invariably omitted from the reprints of his life of Dante.

The interpolated matter, as will be seen, is of two kinds. The first consists merely of phraseological expansions and circumlocutions, which affect the style rather than the sense; such as (in the life of Dante) "con tanta furia e tempesta d'armi vinsero," for Bruni's "con tanta tempesta vinsero"; "ricchezze a grande abbondanza," for "ricchezze assai"; "non sarà cattivo di dire," for "ora diremo"; "con la dolcezza della sua lira," for "con la sua lira"; "di tutto questo bisogna sapere la cagione, che dirò," for "la cagione di questo è"; and so on. The second kind of interpolation is of a different nature altogether. This consists of the

¹ With the other letters contained in this volume we are not at present concerned.

introduction into the text of fresh matter, of which there is no hint or trace in any other printed edition of the lives. A few examples (also from the life of Dante) will suffice to show the character of these additions. Some of them, which do not immediately concern Dante, are of secondary interest; as for instance, the remark "*poiche tractant fabrilia Fabri*" appended to Bruni's "*la lingua pur va dove il dente duole, et a cui piace il bere sempre ragiona di vini*";¹ or the details as to Socrates' wife and second marriage, à propos of Bruni's reference to him as a married man.² A certain number of the additions, on the other hand, if they really possessed the manuscript authority claimed for them, would be of the first importance, as contributing entirely new details to the biography of the poet. We are told, for example, that Dante was in the habit of consulting the opinion of his friends on the subject of his compositions, and that he was sensitive to the judgment of the world at large concerning them, to the extent of laying aside any composition which did not meet with approval.³ Again, in connection with Bruni's statement as to the seizure of Dante's goods after his condemnation, we are informed that the loss was a very heavy one, as Dante was a man of great substance, partly inherited from his father, and partly acquired by his own exertions, to say nothing of what came to him with his wife.⁴ Yet again, Bruni observes that Dante was of a sociable nature, and "*conversò civilmente con li uomini*," to which the Boccacini version adds "*non meno compatrioti che stranieri*."⁵ But the most remarkable, and the most interesting if it were authoritative (and, we may add, the most audacious if it were not), is the addition of another sentence to the well-known quotation from the beginning of Dante's letter to the People of Florence, a letter for which Bruni is our only authority. To the words quoted by Bruni, "*Popule mee quid feci tibi?*" according to the traditional text, the version before us adds, "*aut in quo molestatus⁶ fui responde mihi*."⁷

In the life of Petrarch the interpolations, which are for the most part of much the same character as those in the life of Dante, are considerably more numerous, as a glance at the transcript will show.

¹ See below, p. 53.

² See below, p. 54.

³ See below, p. 65.

⁴ See below, p. 59.

⁵ See below, p. 54.

⁶ *Sic*; a misprint or misreading for "*molestus*." The words quoted by Bruni, as well as the continuation of the quotation in the Boccacini version, come from the Vulgate (*Micah*, vi. 3): "*Popule meus quid feci tibi, aut quid molestus fui tibi? responde mihi*."

⁷ See below, p. 59.

It may be noted here that, in addition to numerous minor misprints, the Boccacchini versions of the lives contain some remarkable blunders, which reflect little credit on the vigilance or perspicacity of the editor. For instance, in the life of Dante, "il libro intitolato *De Vulgari Eloquentia*," in Bruni's phrase, is transformed by the printers into "libro intitolato da' volgari *Eloquenzia*"¹; while out of "Guittone Cavaliere Gaudente d'Arezzo," in the list of Italian poets before Dante, have been evolved two personages hitherto unknown to fame, namely "Guizzone Cavaliere" and "Gaudente d'Arezzo."²

We now give the *Vita di Dante* from Lettera VI; but before coming to the life itself it will be instructive to transcribe the following introductory paragraph in the letter, which is obviously more or less closely paraphrased from the *Proemio* prefixed by Bruni to his biography of the poet:

Veniamo hora alla Vita, studii, e costumi del Dante che desidera, e sopra che ho da dirli ch' il famoso Boccaccio scrisse di questo gran Poeta, appunto come se havesse havuto à scrivere il Filocolo, il Filostrato, ò la Fiametta, cioè con uno stile tutto pieno d'amore, in che s'infiammò tanto che lasciò a dietro le parti più essenziali, ricordando le cose leggiere, e tacendo le gravi. Leonardo Aretino che successe al Boccaccio nella fama di Scrittore eminente, si diede à scrivere con maggior notitia la vita del Dante, non già per derogare à quello scritto havea il Boccaccio, ma per assupplire à quanto questo fatto havea, e come io me ne trovo di detto Aretino una copia della compositione la mando a V. S. nella stessa maniera, et eccola appunto.³

Then follows the *Vita di Dante*:

I maggiori di Dante furono in Firenze di molta⁴ antica Stirpe, in tanto che lui par volere in alcun luogo⁵ *delle sue Composizioni*, essere stati i suoi antichi⁶

¹ See below, p. 65.

² See below, p. 64.

³ Bruni says: "... mi venne alle mani un' Operetta del Boccaccio intitolata *Della vita, costumi, e studi del clarissimo Poeta Dante*. La quale Opera . . . mi parve che il nostro Boccaccio, dolcissimo e suavissimo uomo, così scrivesse la vita e i costumi di tanto sublime Poeta, come se a scrivere avesse il Filocolo, o il Filostrato, o la Fiammetta: perocchè tutta d'amore, e di sospiri, e di cocenti lagrime è piena . . . e tanto s'infiamma in queste parti d'amore, che le gravi e sustanzievoli parti della vita di Dante lascia indietro e trapassa con silenzio; ricordando le cose leggiere, e tacendo le gravi. Io dunque mi posi in cuore per mio spasso scriver di nuovo la Vita di Dante con maggior notizia delle cose stimabili. Nè questo faccio per derogare al Boccaccio; ma perchè lo scriver mio sia quasi un supplimento allo scriver di lui." (From Redit's text.)

⁴ C. R. molto.

⁵ R. alcuni luoghi.

⁶ C. R. i suoi antichi essere stati.

di quei ¹ Romani che fondarono ² Firenze: ma questa è una cosa molta ³ incerta, e secondo il mio parere, *ciò* non ⁴ è altro che indovinare: *però* di quelli che s' ha notitia, ⁵ il Tritavo ⁶ suo fu Messer Cacciaguida Cavaliere Fiorentino, il quale militò sotto l' Imperadore Corrado. Questo Messer Cacciaguida hebbe due figliuoli ⁷ l' uno chiamato Moronto, l' altro Eliseo: di Moronto non si legge alcuna successione; ma da Eliseo nacque la ⁸ Famiglia nominata Elisei, ⁹ e forse anche prima havevano questo nome. Di Messer Cacciaguida nacquero gli Alleghieri, ¹⁰ così chiamati ¹¹ da un suo figliuolo, il quale per Stirpe materna ebbe nome Aldighieri. Messer Cacciaguida, e fratelli, e loro antichi ¹² habitaron quasi in sul cantone ¹³ di Porta San' Pietro, ¹⁴ dove prima vi s' entra di ¹⁵ Mercato Vecchio, nelle Case ch' ancor' hoggi si chiamano degli Elisei, perche à loro rimase l' antichità. Quelli di Messer Cacciaguida detti Alleghieri ¹⁶ habitarono in sù la Piazza detta à ¹⁷ San Martino del Vescovo, dirimpetto alla via che v' à Casa Sacchetti, ¹⁸ e dall' altra parte si stendono vicino alle ¹⁹ Case de' Donati, e de' Givochi.

Dante nacque ²⁰ negli anni del Signore ²¹ 1265. poco dopo la tornata de' Guelfi in Firenze, stati in Esilio per la sconfitta di Monte aperto. ²² Nella pueritia ²³ nodrito liberalmente, e dato a' ²⁴ precettori delle Lettere, subito apparve in lui ingegno grandissimo, et altissimo à cose Eccellenti. Il suo Padre Aldighieri gli mancò *ne' primi anni* della sua pueritia, ²⁵ niente di manco confortato da' propinqui, e da Brunetto Latini valentissimo huomo *nel suo genere*, secondo quel tempo, non solamente à Letteratura, ma agli ²⁶ altri studii liberali si diede, non ²⁷ lasciando in dietro ²⁸ *cosa alcuna nicessaria* a render ²⁹ l' Huomo eccellente, nè per tutto questo si racchiuse in otio, nè privossi del Secolo, ma vivendo, e conversando con gli altri giovini di sua età costumato, et accorto, e valoroso ad ogni esercitio giovanile si trovava.

In tanto che ³⁰ in quella battaglia memorabile, e grandissima, che fu *fatta* à Campaldino, lui *benche* giovane stimatissimo ³¹ *con tutto ciò* si trovò nell' Armi,

¹ R. quelli.² C. R. posero.³ C. R. molto.⁴ C. R. niente.⁵ C. indovinare: ma di quelli che s' abbia n.; R. indovinare: Di quelli che io ho n.⁶ R. tritavolo.¹⁹ R. verso le.⁷ R. fratelli.²⁰ R. Nacque D.⁸ R. quella.²¹ C. R. anni Domini.⁹ R. gli Elisei.²² R. Montaperti.¹⁰ R. Aldighieri.²³ R. puerizia sua.¹¹ C. vocati; R. nominati.²⁴ R. a.¹² R. e i fratelli e i loro a.²⁵ C. R. perdè nella sua puerizia.¹³ C. R. canto,²⁶ R. a degli.¹⁴ C. R. Piero.²⁷ C. R. niente.¹⁵ R. da.²⁸ C. a dietro.¹⁶ R. Aldighieri.²⁹ C. R. che appartenga a far.¹⁷ C. R. dietro a.³⁰ C. R. si trovava; intanto chd.¹⁸ C. R. i S.³¹ C. R. e bene stimato.

combattendo vigorosamente à cavallo nella prima schiera dove portò gravissimo pericolo *della vita*, perciò che ¹ la prima battaglia fu delle Schiere equestri, ² nella quale i ³ Cavaglieri ch' erano dalla parte degli Aretini con tanta *furia e tempesta d'Armi* vinsero, e soperchiarono la schiera de' Cavaglieri Fiorentini, che sbaragliati, ⁴ e rotti bisognò fuggire alla schiera Pedestre.

Questa rottura ⁵ fu quella che fe perdere la Battaglia agli Aretini, perciò che ⁶ i loro Cavalieri vincitori perseguitando quelli che fuggivano per grande distantia, lasciarono à dietro la sua ⁷ pedestre schiera sì che da quindi innanzi in niun lungo ⁸ intieri combatterono; ma i Cavaglieri soli, e da per se, ⁹ senza sussidio di Pedoni, et i Pedoni da per se ¹⁰ poi senza sussidio di ¹¹ Cavaglieri *pugnarono*, e ¹² dalla parte de Fiorentini successe ¹³ tutto il contrario, che per esser fuggiti i loro Cavalieri alla schiera Pedestre, si ferono tutti un corpo, et agevolmente vinsero prima i Cavalieri, e poi i Pedoni.

Dante *con il suo solito naturale stile di scrivere* racconta questa battaglia ¹⁴ in una sua Epistola, e dice esservi stato à combattere; e disegna la forma della Battaglia; e per *maggior* notitia della cosa saper dobbiamo che Vberti, Lamberti, Abbati, e tutti gli altri vsciti da ¹⁵ Firenze erano con gli Aretini; e tutti gli usciti d' Arezzo Gentil' huomini, e Popolani Guelfi, ¹⁶ che in quel tempo tutti erano cacciati, ¹⁷ furono ¹⁸ co' Fiorentini in questa battaglia; e ¹⁹ per questa cagione le parole scritte in Palaggio dicono, sconfitti i Ghibellini à Cerromondo, ²⁰ e non dicono gli Aretini, ²¹ acciò che quella parte degli Aretini che fù col comune à vincere non si dolesse. ²²

Tornando dunque à ²³ nostro proposito dico che Dante virtuosamente si trovò à combattere per la Patria in questa battaglia, e ²⁴ vorrei che il nostro Boccaccio ²⁵ di questa virtù più tosto ²⁶ avesse fatto menzione, che ²⁷ dell' amore di nove anni, e di simili leggierezze, per lui raccontate da ²⁸ tanto huomo. Ma che giova il ²⁹ dire? la ³⁰ lingua pur va dove il dente duole, et a cui ³¹ piace il bere sempre ragiona di vini, *poiche "tractant fabrilia Fabri."* Dopo questa battaglia tornò ³²

1 C. R. *perocchè*.

2 R. adds *cioè de' Cavalieri*.

3 C. *e'*.

4 C. R. *sbarattati*.

5 C. R. *rotta*.

6 C. *perocchè*; R. *perchè*.

7 R. *loro*.

8 *Sic*; C. R. *luogo*.

9 C. R. *di per sè*.

10 C. *di per sè*; omitted by R.

11 C. R. *de'*.

12 C. *E*; R. *Ma*.

13 C. R. *addivenne*.

14 C. R. *Questa battaglia racconta Dante*.

15 R. *di*.

16 R. *e Guelfi*.

17 R. *scacciati*.

18 R. *erano*.

19 C. R. *E*.

20 *Sic*; C. R. *Certomondo*.

21 R. *sconfitti gli A*.

22 C. R. *non si potesse dolere*.

23 C. *adunque a*; R. *dunque al*.

24 R. *E*.

25 C. R. *il B. n*.

26 R. omits *più tosto*.

27 R. *più che*.

28 C. R. *che per lui si raccontano di*.

29 C. R. *a*.

30 C. R. *La*.

31 R. *chi*.

32 R. *tornatosi*.

Dante à Casa, à *seguire* gli studii più *accuratamente* che prima,¹ e niente dimeno, non tralasciò nulla delle ² solite sue conversazioni Urbane, e civili: cosa in vero miracolosa,³ che studiando continuamente à niuna persona pareva⁴ ch'egli studiasse, *rispetto al suo modo di procedere lieto*, et alla sua conversazione giovanile, et *aggradevole*.⁵

Ma già che sono *sù questo punto*, non sarà fuor di proposito di riprendere⁶ l'errore di molti ignoranti, i quali credono non poter niuno studiare,⁷ se non quelli che si nascondono in solitudine, et in otio, et io non mi ricordo d'haver mai veduto alcuno ⁸ di questi *tali* amuffati,⁹ e rimossi dalla conversazione degli Huomini, che sapesse tre Lettere: l'ingegno alto, et elevato¹⁰ non ha bisogno di tormentarsi così fattamente, essendo vera¹¹ conclusione, e certissima che quello che non impara tosto, non impara mai,¹² sì che lo straniarsi,¹³ e levarsi dalla conversazione, è cosa di quei tali che non¹⁴ sono atti col loro basso ingegno ad imparare.¹⁵

Il nostro Dante non solamente conversò civilmente con gli Huomini,¹⁶ non meno compatrioti che stranieri, ma ancora tolse Moglie in sua gioventù,¹⁷ e detta sua Moglie¹⁸ fu Gentil Donna della *chiarissima* Famiglia de' Donati, chiamata per nome Donna¹⁹ Gemma della quale hebbe più figliuoli, come in altro luogo dimostreremo.²⁰ Qui il Boccaccio non ha pazienza, e dice le Mogli esser contrarie agli studii, e non si ricorda che Socrate²¹ il più sommo Filosofo della Grecia²² hebbe Moglie, e figliuoli, et Officii, e Dignità nella sua Repubblica,²³ e benche la sua Moglie fosse stata cattiva, e pessima dalla quale fu forzato di soffrir mille maltrattamenti, non lasciò con tutto ciò di rimaritarsi di nuovo, dopo morta la prima; et Aristotile che si può dire un fondo di sapienza e di dottrina²⁴ hebbe due Mogli in diversi²⁵ tempi, et hebbe figliuoli,

¹ C. e alli studi più che prima si diede; R. alli s. più ferventemente c. p. s. d.

² C. e n. di manco niente t. delle; R. e nondimanco n. t. d.

³ C. cosa miracolosa; R. E era mirabil cosa.

⁴ C. R. sarebbe paruto.

⁵ C. R. per l'usanza lieta e conversazione giovanile.

⁶ C. Nella qual cosa mi giova riprendere; R. Per la qual cosa m. g. r.

⁷ C. R. niuno essere studente. ⁹ C. R. camuffati.

⁸ C. R. e io non vidi mai niuno. ¹⁰ C. L' i. alto e grande; R. L' i. g. e a.

¹¹ C. di tali tormenti; anzi è vera (R. verissima).

¹² C. quello che non appara tosto, non appara mai; R. quelli che non appaiono tosto, non appaiono mai.

¹³ C. R. Sì che s.

¹⁴ C. R. è al tutto di quelli che niente.

¹⁵ C. R. imprendere.

¹⁶ C. Nè solamente c. c. con li u. Dante; R. Nè s. c. c. D. con gli u.

¹⁷ R. giovanezza.

²⁰ C. R. in altra parte di quest' opera d.

¹⁸ C. R. la m. sua.

²¹ C. Isocrate.

¹⁹ C. Mona; R. Madonna.

²² C. il più sommo (R. nobile) f. che mai fusse.

²³ C. R. nella r. della sua Città.

²⁴ C. R. A. che non si può dire più là di s. e di d.

²⁵ R. vari.

e ricchezze *in grande abbondanza*:¹ e Marco Tullio, e Catone, e Seneca, e Verrone² Filosofi così famosi trà Latini³ tutti ebbero Mogli, figliuoli, et Offitii,⁴ e Governi nella Republica: sì che mi perdoni⁵ il Boccaccio, i suoi giuditii sono molto frivoli⁶ in questa parte, e molto distanti dalla vera opinione: l' Uomo è Animale⁷ civile, secondo piace a tutti i Filosofi, dalla prima congiunzione del quale⁸ moltiplicata nasce la Città; nè può esser cosa perfetta dove non vi è la congiunzione del Marito, e Moglie;⁹ e solo questo amore *nel Mondo* è Naturale legittimo e permesso.

Adunque havendo Dante tolto Moglie,¹⁰ e vivendo *con essa* civile, honesta,¹¹ e studiosa vita, fu adoperato nella Republica *in maneggi di grande importanza*,¹² e finalmente venuto¹³ alla debita età¹⁴ fu creato uno de' Priori non per sorte come s' usa al presente, ma per elettione come in quel tempo si costumava fare.¹⁵ Furono nell' Offitio del Priorato con lui Messer Palmieri Altoviti,¹⁶ e Neri di Messer Jacopo degli Alberti, et altri Colleghi, e fu questo suo Priorato nel 1300. e da¹⁷ questo Priorato nacque la cacciata sua *dalla Città*, et *ancora hebbro origine* tutte le altre sue avversità¹⁸ che egli ebbe nella sua vita,¹⁹ secondo che esso²⁰ medesimo *lo* scrive in una sua Epistola della quale le parole sono.²¹

" Tutti i mali, e gli²² inconvenienti miei dagl' infausti Comitii del mio Priorato ebbono²³ cagione, e principio, del quale Priorato, benché per prudentia io non fossi degno, niente di meno per fede, e per età non ne ero²⁴ indegno, perocché dieci anni erano già passati dopo la battaglia di Campaldino nella quale la parte Ghibellina fu quasi del tutto²⁵ morta, e disfatta, dove mi trovai non fanciullo nell' Armi, dove²⁶ hebbi temenza molta, e nella fine allegrezza grandissima,²⁷ per li varii casi di quella battaglia."

Queste sono le *proprie* parole *del Dante*,²⁸ ora²⁹ la cagione della sua cacciata vogliò particolarmente raccontare, per ciò che³⁰ è cosa notabile, et il Boccaccio se ne passa con piede asciutto,³¹ che forse non gli era così nota come à noi per

¹ C. R. *r. assai.*

² *Sic*; R. *Varrone e Seneca.*

³ C. R. *Latini sommi f.*

⁴ R. *moglie, ufici.*

⁵ C. R. *Città, e marito e moglie; nè cosa può esser perfetta, dove questa (R. questo) non sia.*

¹⁰ C. R. *D. a., tolta (R. tolto) donna.*

¹¹ R. *civilmente ed onesta.*

¹² C. R. *nella r. assai.*

¹³ R. *pervenuto.*

¹⁴ C. R. *età d.*

¹⁵ R. *c. di f.*

¹⁶ R. *degli A.*

¹⁷ C. R. *Da.*

¹⁸ C. R. *cacciata sua, e tutte le cose avverse.*

¹⁹ C. *nella v. s.*; R. *nella v.*

²⁰ C. *s. e. m.*; R. *s. lui m.*

⁵ C. R. *Sicchè perdonimi.*

⁶ R. *fievoli.*

⁷ Solerti reads *anima.*

⁸ C. R. *la p. c. della (R. dalla) q.*

²¹ C. R. *sono queste.*

²² R. *e tutti l'.*

²³ R. *ebbero.*

²⁴ C. R. *era.*

²⁵ R. *al t.*

²⁶ R. *e d.*

²⁷ R. *g. a.*

²⁸ C. R. *Queste sono le p. sue.*

²⁹ C. R. *Ora.*

³⁰ C. R. *perocchè.*

³¹ R. *passa così asciuttamente.*

cagione della Storia che habbiamo scritta. Havendo prima havuto la Città di Firenze divisioni assai trà Guelfi, e Ghibellini, finalmente era rimasa nelle mani de' Guelfi, e stata assai lungo spatio¹ in questa forma sopravvenne un'altra² maledizione di parte infrà³ Guelfi medesimi i quali reggevano la Repubblica, e fù il nome delle parti Bianchi, e Neri.

Nacque questa perversità ne' Pistoiesi in prima,⁴ e massime nella Famiglia de' Cancellieri, et essendo già divisa tutta Pistoia, per porvi rimedio fù ordinato da' Fiorentini che i Capi di queste sette ne venissono⁵ à Firenze, acciò che là non facessero maggior turbatione. Questo rimedio fù tale che non tanto di bene fece a' Pistoiesi per levarli⁶ i Capi, quanto di male fece a' Fiorentini per tirarli⁷ quella pestilenzia; peroche havendo i Capi à Firenze⁸ parentadi, et amicitie assai, subito accesero il fuoco con maggiore incendio per li favori diversi⁹ che havevano da' Parentadi, dagli¹⁰ amici, che non era quello che lasciato havevano à Pistoia, e trattandosi di questa materia in publico, e privato¹¹ mirabilmente s'apprese il mal seme, e divisesi tutta la Città¹² in modo che quasi non vi fu Famiglia Nobile, nè plebea che in se medesima non si dividesse, ne Uomo¹³ particolare di stima alcuna, che non fusse dell'una delle sette, e trovossi in molti la divisione¹⁴ essere trà¹⁵ fratelli carnali che l'uno di quà, e l'altro di là teneva.

Essendo già durata la contesa più mesi, e multiplicati gli inconvenienti non solamente per parole, ma ancora per fatti dispettosi, et acerbi cominciati trà i giovani,¹⁶ e distesi¹⁷ trà gli Huomini di matura età, la Città tutta stava¹⁸ sollevata, e sospesa, avvenne¹⁹ ch'essendo Dante de' Priori, certa ragunata si fè per la parte de' Neri nella Chiesa di Santa Trinità: quello che trattassero fu cosa molto segreta, ma l'effetto fu di fare opera con Papa Bonifatio VIII. il quale allora sedeva, che mandasse à Firenze Messer Carlo di Valois de' Reali di Francia à pacificare, e riformare la terra.²⁰

Questa ragunata sentendosi per l'altra parte subito²¹ se ne prese suspizione grandissima in tanto che presero l'armi, e fornironsi d'amistà, et andarono a'²² Priori aggravando la ragunata fatta, e l'havere con privato consiglio preso²³ deliberatione dello stato della Città, e tutto esser fatto dicevano per cacciargli di Firenze, et in tanto domandorono²⁴ a' Priori che facessero punire tanto prosuntuoso eccesso.

¹ R. *l. s. di tempo.*

² R. *di nuovo un'a.*

³ R. *intra.*

⁴ R. *prima ne' Pistoiesi.*

⁵ R. *s. venissero.*

⁶ R. *levar loro.*

⁷ C. R. *tirare a se.*

⁸ C. R. *in F.*

⁹ C. *per gli d. f.*; R. *per d. f.*

¹⁰ C. R. *parenti e d.*

¹¹ R. *publice et privatim.*

¹² R. *d. la c. t.*

¹³ R. *ne vi fu u.*

¹⁴ R. *omits in molti.*

¹⁵ R. *tra'.*

¹⁶ R. *trà g.*

¹⁷ R. *discesi.*

¹⁸ R. *la c. s. t.*

¹⁹ C. *Addivenne.*

²⁰ R. *e a r. la città.*

²¹ R. *p. de' Bianchi, s.*

²² R. *a.*

²³ R. *presa*; Solerti reads *prese.*

²⁴ C. R. *pertanto domandavano.*

Quelli che havevano fatto¹ la ragunata temendo anche loro² pigliando³ l'armi et appresso i⁴ Priori si dolevano degli avversarii, che senza deliberatione publica s'erano armati, e fortificati, affermando che sotto varii colori gli volevano cacciare, e domandavano a' Priori che li facessero punire, si come perturbatori⁵ del riposo publico,⁶ *di modo che* l'una parte, e l'altra di Fanti, e d'Amistà forniti⁷ s'erano, *onde* la paura, il terrore,⁸ et il pericolo era grandissimo.

Stando⁹ adunque la Città *così immersa* nell'¹⁰ armi e ne¹⁰ travagli i Priori per consiglio del Dante providdero di fortificarsi dalla¹¹ moltitudine del Popolo, e quando furono fortificati ne mandarono a'¹² confini gli Huomini de' principali¹³ delle due sette che¹⁴ furono *i seguenti*,¹⁵ Messer Corso Donati, Messer Geri Spini, Messer Giachinotto de' Patti¹⁶: Messer Rosso della Tosa, et altri con loro: tutti questi erano della¹⁷ parte Nera, e furono mandati a'¹⁸ confini à Castel¹⁹ della Pieve in quel di Peruggia: dalla parte de' Bianchi furono mandati a' confini à Serezana Messer Gentile, e Messer Torriggiano de' Cerchi, Guido Cavalcanti, Baschiera della Tosa, Baldinaccio Aldimari,²⁰ Naldo di Messer Lottino Gherardini, et altri.

Questo *consiglio* diede gravezza²¹ assai à Dante, e con tutto ch'esso²² si scusasse²³ come Huomo senza parte, *e senza interesse*, niente di manco fu riputato che pendesse²⁴ in parte Bianca, e che gli dispiacesse il consiglio tenuto,²⁵ e *risoluto* di chiamare Carlo de Valois à Firenze, come materia di scandali,²⁶ e di guai alla Città, et accrebbe²⁷ *con questi sospetti* l'invidia, perche quella parte de'²⁸ Cittadini, che fu confinata à Serezana subito ritornò à Firenze, e l'altra parte confinata²⁹ à Castel³⁰ della Pieve si rimase di fuori.

A *tutte queste accuse*³¹ risponde Dante, che quando quelli di³² Serezana furono rivotati, esso era fuori dell' Ufficio del Priorato, e che *però* à lui non si deve³³ imputare *tal successo*; di più dice che la ritornata loro fu per l'infermità, e morte di Guido Cavalcanti, il quale s'ammalò³⁴

¹ R. fatta.² R. ancora essi.³ C. R. pigliarono.⁴ R. a'.⁵ R. turbatori.⁶ C. R. della quiete pubblica.⁷ R. fornite.⁸ C. R. p. e il t.⁹ C. R. Essendo.¹⁰ C. R. in.¹¹ R. della.¹² R. a.¹³ C. uomini più p.; R. u. principali.¹⁴ R. i quali.¹⁵ C. R. f. questi.¹⁶ C. R. Pazzi.¹⁷ R. per la.¹⁸ R. a.¹⁹ R. al Castello.²⁰ Sic; C. R. Adimari.²¹ C. gravezze.²² R. lui.²³ C. R. si scusi.²⁴ C. riputato pendesse.²⁵ R. adds in Santa Trinità.²⁶ R. scandalo.²⁷ C. R. accrebbe.²⁸ R. di.²⁹ R. l'altra ch'era c.³⁰ R. Castello.³¹ C. R. A questo.³² R. da.³³ C. R. debba.³⁴ C. R. ammalò.

à Serezana rispetto all' aria¹ cattiva di questo luogo, e poco appresso se ne morì.

Questa dissuguaglianza mosse il Papa à mandar Carlo di Valois² à Firenze, il quale essendo per riverenza del Papa, e della Casa di Francia ricevuto³ nella Città, rimesse⁴ i Cittadini confinati, et appresso cacciò la parte Bianca per⁵ rivelatione di certo trattato fatto⁶ da⁷ Messer Piero Ferranti suo Barone, il quale disse essere stato richiesto da tre Gentil' huomini della parte Bianca, cioè, da Naldo di Messer Lottino Gherardini, da Bacchiera della Tosa, e da Baldinaccio Aldimari⁸ d' adoperarsi⁹ con Messer Carlo de Valois, che la lor parte rimanesse superiore nella Terra, e che gli havevano promesso di dargli Prato in governo se facesse questo.

Di tutta questa promessa e richiesta ne produsse scrittura,¹⁰ con i *propri* sugilli di costoro, la quale scrittura io ho veduta nel suo *proprio* originale,¹¹ però che ancora hoggi è in Palaggio della Signoria, trà le altre¹² scritture pubbliche, ma quanto à me ella mi pare grandemente¹³ sospetta, e credo per certo¹⁴ ch' ella fusse¹⁵ fittizia; pure quel che si fusse la cacciata,¹⁶ seguitò di tutta la parte Bianca, mostrando sdegno Carlo di¹⁷ questa richiesta, e promessa da loro con tante *circonventioni* fatte.¹⁸

In questo tempo Dante¹⁹ non era in Firenze, ma era à Roma mandato poco avanti Imbasciatore al Papa, per offerire la concordia, e pace²⁰ de' Cittadini; niente²¹ di manco per isdegno di quelli,²² che nel suo Priorato confiscati²³ furono dalla²⁴ parte Nera gli fu corso à Casa, e rubbata ogni sua cosa con *pes-simo sacco*, et dato il guasto alle sue possessioni, et à lui, et à Messer Palmieri Altoviti dato bando della persona, per contumacia di non comparire, non per verità d' alcun fallo commesso.

La via del dar bando fu questa, che Legge fecero iniqua, e perversa, la quale si guardava in dietro, ch' il Potestà di Firenze potesse, e dovesse conoscere de' ²⁵ falli commessi lo adietro²⁶ nell' ufficio del Priorato, con tutto che assoluzione fosse seguita: Per questa legge citato Dante per Messer Cante²⁷ de' Gabrielli, allora Potestà in²⁸ Firenze essendo absente, e non comparendo fu

¹ C. R. *per l' aere*.

² R. omits *di Valois*.

³ R. *onorevolmente r.*

⁴ C. *rimise*; R. *di subito rimise dentro*.

⁵ R. *di adoperar sì*.

¹⁰ C. R. *e produsse scrittura* (R. *la s.*) *di questa richiesta e promessa*.

¹¹ C. R. *la quale s. originale ho io* (R. *io ho*) *v.*

¹² R. *con altre*.

¹⁴ R. *credo certo*.

¹³ C. *forte*; R. *forse*.

¹⁵ R. *sia*.

¹⁶ C. R. *Pure quel* (R. *quello*) *che si fusse, la c.*

¹⁷ R. *m. C. grande s. di*.

²¹ R. *non*.

¹⁸ C. R. *fatta*.

²² R. *coloro*.

¹⁹ C. R. *D. in q. t.*

²³ C. R. *confinati*.

²⁰ C. R. *la pace*.

²⁴ R. *della*.

²⁵ R. *i*.

²⁶ C. R. *per lo a.*

²⁷ R. *Conte*.

²⁸ R. *di*.

⁶ R. *La cagione fu per*.

⁶ C. *fatta*.

⁷ C. R. *per*.

⁸ Sic; C. R. *Adimari*.

condannato, e sbandito, e publicati i Beni suoi¹ con tutto che *della furia fossero stati* prima rubbati, e guasti, *che riuscì di notabilissima perdita perocché haveva Dante commodi grandi di fortuna, non solamente lasciati dal Padre, ma che di più haveva con sua industria acquistati, oltre à quelli della Moglie che non erano da disprezzare.*

Hora che habbiamo detto come passò la cacciata di Firenze del² Dante, e per qual³ cagione, e per qual³ modo, *non sarà cattivo di dire*⁴ qual fosse la vita sua nell' esilio. Sentito⁵ Dante *per via d'amici* la ruina sua⁶ subito partì di⁷ Roma, *di* dove era Imbasciatore, e caminando con celerità⁸ ne venne à Siena: quivi intesa più chiaramente⁹ la sua calamità, non vedendo alcuno riparo, deliberò accozzarsi con gli altri usciti, et il primo accozzamento fù in una Congregatione degli usciti, la quale si fè à Gargonza,¹⁰ dove trattate molte cose finalmente fermaro la Sede in¹¹ Arezzo, e quivi fero capo¹² grosso, e crearono loro Capitano generale¹³ il Conte Alesandro da Romena, e fecero¹⁴ dodici Consiglieri, del numero de' quali fù Dante, e di speranza in speranza stettero per in fino¹⁵ all' anno 1304: allora¹⁶ fatto sforzo grandissimo d'ogni loro amistà, ne vennero per entrare¹⁷ in Firenze con grandissima moltitudine, la quale non solamente d' Arezzo,¹⁸ ma da Bologna, e da Pistoia con loro si congiunse, e giugnendo improvviso,¹⁹ e subito²⁰ presero una porta di Firenze, e vinsero²¹ parte della Terra, ma finalmente bisognò se ne ritornassero²² *non solamente senza alcun frutto,*²³ *ma con qualche perdita.*

Fallita dunque tutta questa²⁴ speranza, non parendo à Dante più da perder tempo partì d' Arezzo, et andossene à Verona, dove ricevuto molto cortesemente da' Signori della Scala, fece²⁵ dimora alcun tempo, e ridussesi tutto humiltà,²⁶ cercando con buoni²⁷ opere, e con buoni portamenti racquistar²⁸ la gratia di poter tornare in Firenze, per ispontanea rivocatione di chi reggeva la Terra, e sopra questa parte s'affaticò assai, e scrisse più volte non solamente a' particolari Cittadini,²⁹ mà ancora al Popolo, e trà³⁰ le altre un' Epistola assai lunga, la quale³¹ comincia³² "Popule mi³³ quid feci tibi? *aut in quo molestatus*³⁴ *fui responde mihi.*"

Essendo in questa speranza Dante di tornare³⁵ per via di perdono sopravvenne l' electione d' Arrigo di Luzemburgo³⁶ all' Imperio,³⁷ per la cui electione prima, e

¹ R. *i s. b.*

² C. R. *di.*

³ C. R. *che.*

⁴ C. R. *ora diremo.*

⁵ R. *Sentita.*

⁶ R. *la s. r.*

⁷ C. *da.*

⁸ R. *con gran c.*

⁹ C. omits *più.*

¹⁰ R. *Gargonza.*

¹¹ R. *fermarono la sedia loro ad.*

³⁴ Sic.

³⁵ R. *s. di ritornare.*

¹² R. *campo.*

¹³ R. omits *generale.*

¹⁴ C. *e fero*; R. omits *e.*

¹⁵ R. *s. infino.*

¹⁶ R. *e a.*

¹⁷ R. *rientrare.*

¹⁸ R. *da A.*

¹⁹ R. *improvvisi.*

²⁰ C. *e subiti*; R. *subito.*

²¹ C. *vinsono.*

²² C. R. *se n' andassero.*

³⁶ R. *Luzinborgo.*

²³ C. R. *s. f. a.*

²⁴ C. R. *questa tanta.*

²⁵ R. *con loro f.*

²⁶ R. *a umiltà.*

²⁷ Sic.

²⁸ R. *riacquistare.*

²⁹ R. *c. del reggimento.*

³⁰ C. R. *intra.*

³¹ R. *che.*

³² C. R. *incomincia.*

³³ R. *mee.*

³⁷ C. R. *L. imperadore.*

poi per¹ la passata sua, essendo tutta l'Italia² sollevata in speranza di grandissima³ novità, Dante non potè tenere il proposito suo dell'aspettar la⁴ gratia, ma levatosi con l'animo altiero⁵ cominciò a dir male di quei⁶ che reggevano la Terra, appellandogli scelerati, e cattivi, e minacciando la⁷ debita vendetta per la potentia dell'Imperadore, contro la quale dicea esser manifesto loro non havere alcuno scampo:⁸ pure il tenne tanto la riverentia della Patria, che⁹ venendo l'Imperadore contra¹⁰ Firenze, e ponendosi à campo presso la¹¹ porta non vi volle essere secondo esso¹² scrive, con tutto che confortato¹³ fosse stato di sua venuta.

Morto di¹⁴ poi l'Imperadore Arrigo, il quale nella seguente estate morì à Buonconvento ogni speranza al tutto fu perduta da Dante, perocche di gratia egli¹⁵ medesimo s'aveva tolta¹⁶ la via per lo parlare,¹⁷ e scrivere contro i¹⁸ Cittadini, che governavano la Repubblica, e forza non ci restava la¹⁹ quale sperar²⁰ potesse: sì che deposta ogni speranza, povero assai trapassò il resto di sua²¹ vita, dimorando in vari luoghi per la Lombardia, e²² per la Toscana, e per la Romagna sotto il sussidio di diversi²³ Signori, per in fino che finalmente si ridusse in²⁴ Ravenna, dove finì la sua vita.

Ma già che detto²⁵ habbiamo degli affanni suoi pubblici, et in questa parte mostrato il corso della sua²⁶ vita, diremo hora del suo stato domestico, e de' suoi costumi, e studii. Dante innanzi la cacciata sua di Firenze, non solo non fù povero, ma di più hebbe patrimonio non mediocre,²⁷ e sufficiente à²⁸ vivere honoratamente: ebbe un fratello chiamato Francesco Alighiere,²⁹ ebbe moglie come di sopra dicemmo, e figliuoli,³⁰ de' quali ancora hoggi resta³¹ successione, e stirpe, come di sotto faremo mentione.

Case in Firenze hebbe assai decenti, congiunte con le Case di Geri di Messer Bello suo Consobrino³²: ebbe Possessioni in Camerata, e nella Piacentina, et in Piano di Ripoli, ebbe supellettile abbondante, e pretioso,³³ secondo egli³⁴ scrive: fu huomo molto polito, di statura decente, e di grato aspetto, e pieno di gravità; parlatore rado, e tardo, ma nelle sue risposte molto sottile:³⁵ la sua propria effigie³⁶ si vede nella Chiesa di Santa Croce, quasi al mezzo

¹ R. omits *per*.

² C. R. *t. l.*

⁷ R. *loro la*.

⁹ R. omits *che*.

¹⁰ R. *contro a*.

¹¹ R. *alla*.

¹² R. *lui*.

¹³ C. R. *confortator*.

¹⁴ R. omits *di*.

²⁷ C. R. *Firenze, contuttochè di grandissima ricchezza non fusse, nientedimeno non fu povero, ma ebbe p. m.*

²⁸ R. *al*.

²⁹ *Sic*; C. R. *Alighieri*.

³⁰ R. *e più f.*

³ C. R. *grandissime*.

⁴ R. omits *la*.

⁸ R. *m. che essi non avrebbon potuto avere s. a.*

¹⁶ R. *lui*.

¹⁶ R. *tolto*.

¹⁷ R. *sparlare*.

¹⁸ R. *a'*.

¹⁹ C. R. *per la*.

²⁰ R. *più s.*

³¹ R. *r. a. oggi*.

³² C. R. *consorto*.

³³ R. *preziosa*.

⁵ C. *altero*.

⁶ R. *quelli*.

²¹ R. *della suo*.

²² R. omits *e*.

²³ C. R. *vari*.

²⁴ C. R. *a*.

²⁵ C. R. *Poichè d.*

²⁶ R. *di suo'*.

³⁴ R. *lui*.

³⁵ *Sic*; C. R. *sottile*.

³⁶ C. R. *e. s. p.*

della Chiesa dalla Mano sinistra, andando verso l'Altar maggiore, et¹ ritratta al naturale ottimamente per dipintore perfetto del tempo suo.² Dilettossi di Musica, e di suoni, e di sua³ mano egregiamente disegnava. Fù ancora scrittore perfetto, et era la Lettera sua magra, e lunga, e molto corretta, secondo io ho veduto in alcune sue Epistole.⁴

Fu molto carnale nella sua giovinezza, conversando quasi di continuo con altri giovini innamorati,⁵ che di⁶ simil passione erano occupati,⁷ *ben' è vero ch'egli faceva ciò non per libidine, ma per tenerezza⁸ di cuore, e questa fu la causa che ne' suoi più teneri anni cominciò à scrivere alcuni versi d'amore,⁹ come veder si pote¹⁰ in una sua Operetta volgare che si chiama "Vita nuova."* Lo Studio suo principale fu Poesia, mà¹¹ non sterile, nè povera, nè fantastica, ma fecondata, et arricchita, e stabilita da vera scienza, e da moltissime¹² discipline.

E per darmi¹³ ad intendere meglio *per maggior chiarezza* di¹⁴ chi legge, dico che in due modi diviene alcuno Poeta: un modo si è per proprio ingegno,¹⁵ agitato, e commosso d'¹⁶ alcun vigore interno, e nascoso, il quale si chiama furore, et occupazione di mente: darò una similitudine di quello ch'io voglio¹⁷ dire.

Il¹⁸ Beato Francesco d'Assisi, non per iscienza, nè per disciplina scolastica, ma per occupatione, et estrattione¹⁹ di mente, applicava di tal modo²⁰ l'animo suo à Dio, che quasi si trasfigurava oltre il²¹ senso humano, e conosceva Iddio,²² *molto più di quello* che i Teologi conoscono col mezzo di tanti loro studii, e tanti applicationi delle Lettere: ²³ *così non altrimenti* nella Poesia alcuno per interna agitazione, et applicatione di mente, diviene *all'insensibile* Poeta²⁴; e questa è²⁵ la somma, e la più perfetta, *et eccellente* specie di Poesia; *che però quelli che son ricchi di tal dono*, vengono chiamati da molti Poeti divini, *per esser naturali, concorrendo à formar la naturalezza, la divinità* et altri li chiamano sagri, ò pure vati,²⁶ e da²⁷ questa astrazione e furore ch'io dirò²⁸ prendono l'appellatione.

Gli esempi che habbiamo²⁹ da³⁰ Orfeo, e da³⁰ Hesiodo de' quali l'uno, e l'altro fu tale, quale di sopra è stato da me³¹ raccontato, e fu di tanta Efficacia

¹ C. ed è.

² R. di quel t.

³ R. suo'.

⁴ C. in alcune Epistole di sua mano propria scritte (R. di suo' p. m.).

⁵ C. R. Fu usante in giovinezza sua con giovani i.

⁶ C. R. e lui (R. egli) ancora di.

⁷ C. R. s. p. occupato.

¹² R. molte.

¹⁷ R. vo'.

⁸ C. R. gentilezza.

¹³ R. dare.

¹⁸ C. omits II.

⁹ C. R. v. d' a. a s. c.

¹⁴ C. R. a.

¹⁹ Sic; C. R. astrazione.

¹⁰ R. può.

¹⁵ C. R. i. p.

²⁰ C. R. sì forte applicava.

¹¹ R. omits ma.

¹⁶ C. R. da.

²¹ C. R. al.

²² C. di Dio; R. d' Iddio.

²³ C. R. più che nè per istudio, nè per lettere conoscono i Teologi.

²⁴ C. R. poeta diviene.

²⁵ R. si è.

²⁶ C. R. Poesia; e qualunque (R. onde alcuni) dicono, i Poeti esser divini, e qualunque (R. alcuni) li chiamano sacri, e qualunque (R. alcuni) li chiamano vati.

²⁷ C. R. v. Da.

²⁹ C. gli e. li abbiamo; R. gli e. a.

²⁸ R. dico.

³⁰ R. d'.

³¹ R. da me è stato.

Orfeo che i Sassi, le Selve,¹ e gli *Animali istessi* moveva con la *dolcezza della sua*² Lira, et Hesiodo essendo Pastore rozzo, et indotto, solamente bevuta³ l'acqua della fonte Castalia, senza alcun'altro studio di *mastri* Poeta sommo divenne, del quale habbiamo l'opere ancora hoggi, e sono tali che niuno de' Poeti Letterati, e scientifici *dall'arte* può vantaggiarlo,⁴ *don somigliarlo*.

Dunque una specie⁵ di Poeti è per interna abstrazione, et agitazione⁶ di mente, l'altra specie è per iscienza, per studio, per disciplina, *per*⁷ arte, e per⁸ prudenzia; e di questa seconda specie fù *il nostro sommo* Dante; peroche con lo studio⁹ di Filosofia, Teologia,¹⁰ Astrologia, et Aritmetica¹¹; con la¹² lezione¹³ di tante, e tante Storie, con la¹² revolutione di molti, e vari Libri vigilando, e sudando negli studii, acquistò la scienza, la quale doveva *poi* ornare, et esplicare con li¹⁴ suoi versi.

Ma già che habbiamo detto della qualità de' Poeti,¹⁵ *non sarà fuor di proposito* di dire hora¹⁶ del nome, per lo¹⁷ quale ancora si comprenderà la sostanza: con tutto che queste sono¹⁸ cose che difficilissimamente si possono dire¹⁹ in volgare idioma, pur m'ingegnerò di darle ad intendere, perche secondo il parer²⁰ mio, questi nostri moderni Poeti,²¹ *che vanno sorgendo in abbondanza*, non l'hanno bene intesa,²² e ciò non deve portar maraviglia,²³ essendo ignari *per la maggior parte* della lingua Greca, *tanto necessaria a' Poeti*.

Dico adunque che questo nome Poeta è nome Greco, e tanto viene à significare²⁴ quanto facitore: per haver detto fino²⁵ qui conosco che non sarebbe inteso il dir mio, sì che più oltre bisogna aprire l'intelletto. Dico dunque che²⁶ de' Libri, e dell'Opere Poetiche, alcuni²⁷ Huomini sono legitori dell'opere altrui, e niente fanno da *per se*, come adiviene²⁸ al più delle genti: altri²⁹ *tutto al contrario*, sono facitori dell'³⁰ Opere, come Virgilio fece il Libro dell' *Eneda*,³¹ e³² Statio fece il Libro della *Tebaida*, et Ovidio fece il Libro *Metamorfoseos*, et Omero fece l'*Odissea*, e l'*Iliade*.

Questi adunque che ferno³³ le opere *da per loro* furono veramente Poeti, cioè facitori di dette Opere che noi³⁴ Leggiamo, e noi siamo i Leggitori, et

¹ C. *e' sassi e le selve*; R. *sassi e selve*.

² R. *suo*'.

³ C. *s. bevuto*; R. *bevuta s.*

⁴ C. *lo vantaggia*; R. *le v.*

⁵ C. *U. s. adunque*; R. *U. s. dunque*.

⁶ R. *omits et a.*

⁷ C. R. *ed.*

⁸ C. *omits per.*

⁹ C. R. *per istudio*.

¹⁰ C. *mal si possono dire*; R. *male dir si possano*.

²⁰ C. R. *p. al p. mio*.

²¹ R. *p. m.*

²² R. *intese*.

²³ C. R. *nè è m.*

²⁴ C. R. *dire*.

¹⁰ R. *di t.*

¹¹ R. *a., arismetica, e geometria.*

¹² C. R. *per.*

¹³ R. *lezioni*.

¹⁴ R. *co*'.

¹⁵ C. R. *E perchè della q. de' p. a. detto.*

¹⁶ C. R. *diremo ora*.

¹⁷ R. *pel.*

¹⁸ R. *sien*.

²⁵ C. R. *insino a.*

²⁶ R. *omits che*.

²⁷ R. *poetiche. Alcuni.*

²⁸ R. *avviene*.

²⁹ C. R. *a. uomini.*

³⁰ C. R. *d'esse*.

³¹ *Sic*; C. R. *Encida*.

³² R. *omits e.*

³³ R. *feron*.

³⁴ R. *noi altri*.

essi¹ furono i facitori: e quando noi sentiamo lodare con tante laudi un Valent' uomo di studii, e² di lettere, usiamo di³ domandare a' lodatori, se fa egli alcuna causa del suo proprio,⁴ se lascerà egli alcuna opera⁵ al Mondo da se composta e fatta?

Poeta veramente senza altro dire si può chiamar colui⁶ che fa alcuna opera, cioè Auttore, e componitore, di quello che altri legge⁷ ò per suo piacere, ò per suo utile, poiche molti leggono i Libri sotto differenti disegni, imperòche tutti non hanno lo scopo di cercar con la lettura materia da servire il pubblico, contentandosi li più à sodisfarsi soli. Potrebbe dir qui alcuno⁸ che secondo al⁹ parlar mio, che il Mercante¹⁰ che scrive le sue raggioni, e delle quali ne forma un Libro¹¹ si può dir Poeta,¹² e¹³ Tito Livio, e Salustio sarebbero¹⁴ Poeti, peroche ciascuno di loro scrisse Libri, et¹⁵ opere da Leggere, come veramente noi leggiamo: à questo rispondo che fare Opere¹⁶ non si dice se non in versi; e questo adivene¹⁷ per eccellenza dello studio,¹⁸ peroche le sillabe, e¹⁹ la misura, e il suono è solamente di chi dice in versi, et usiamo dire²⁰ in nostro volgare senso, "costui fa Canzoni,²¹ e Sonetti," ma per scrivere una, ò due Lettere²² a' suoi amici non diremo per questo ch' egli²³ habbia fatto alcuna Opera.

Il nome di²⁴ Poeta significa eccellente, et ammirabile nel suo stile in versi, coperto, et adombrato da²⁵ legiadria, et altra fittione²⁶; e come ogni Presidente comanda, et impera, ma non per questo è Imperadore, costumandosi di chiamar Imperadore²⁷ quello ch' è sommo di tutti, e sopra tutti, così chi compone opere in versi, et è sommo, et eccellentissimo nella composizione di²⁸ tali opere, quello merita il nome, e le laude di Poeta.²⁹

Or³⁰ questa è la verità certa, et assoluta del nome, e dell' effetto de' Poeti, lo scrivere in stile litterato, ò volgar non ha à fare il³¹ fatto, nè altra differenza vi è se non quella che si trova trà³² lo scrivere in Greco, et³³ in Latino; peroche ciascuna di queste lingue³⁴ ha la³⁵ sua³⁶ perfettione, e suo suono, e suo parlare limato, e scientifico; pur chi mi domandasse per che³⁷ cagione Dante elesse scrivere in volgare più tosto³⁸ che in Latino e litterato stile? risponderei

¹ R. e loro.

² R. o.

³ R. omits di.

¹⁰ C. R. mercatante.

¹¹ C. R. ragioni, e fanne libro.

¹² C. R. sarebbe p.

¹⁶ R. opere poetiche.

¹⁷ R. avviene.

¹⁸ R. stile.

²⁵ R. adombrato di.

²⁶ C. R. alta finzione.

²⁷ C. R. ma solo colui si chiama (R. è) i.

²⁸ C. R. nel comporre.

³⁸ C. R. od.

³⁴ C. R. ciascuna lingua.

⁴ C. R. a. cosa da sè?

⁵ C. o. a.

⁶ C. R. Poeta è adunque colui.

¹⁹ R. omits e.

²⁰ R. di d.

²¹ C. R. canzone.

³⁵ C. R. omits la.

³⁶ R. suo'.

⁷ R. omits cioè . . . legge.

⁸ R. qui a. d.

⁹ C. R. il.

¹³ R. e che.

¹⁴ R. sarebbero; Solerti reads sarebbe.

¹⁵ R. e fece.

²² C. R. una lettera.

²³ R. lui.

²⁴ C. R. del.

²⁹ C. R. opere, si chiama poeta.

³⁰ R. omits Or.

³¹ R. al.

³² C. R. come.

³⁷ R. qual.

³⁸ C. R. D. p. e. s. in v.

quello ch'è la verità cioè che Dante conosceva se medesimo molto più atto à questo stile volgare, et¹ in rima, ch'è à quello latino, e² litterato e³ certo molte cose sono dette da lui legiadramente in questa rima volgare, che nè averebbe saputo, nè haverebbe potuto⁴ dire in lingua Latina, et in versi eroici: la prova sono l'Egloghe da lui fatte in versi exametri, le quali posto siano belle, niente di manco molte ne habbiamo vedute vantaggiamente⁵ scritte: et a dire il vero la virtù di questo nostro *gran* Poeta, fù nella rima volgare, nella quale eccellentissimo⁶ sopra ogni altro, ma in versi Latini, ò⁷ improsa⁸ non aggiugne appena à quelli che⁹ mezzanamente hanno scritto.

Di tutto questo *bisogna sapere* la cagione, che dirò: il secolo¹⁰ suo era dato à dire in rima,¹¹ et in¹² gentilezza di dire in prosa, ò in versi Latini niente intesero gli Huomini di quel Secolo, ma furon rozzi, e grossi, e senza peritia di Lettere, dotti nientedimeno in queste discipline al modo fratesco scolastico.¹³ Cominciossi à dire in Rima, secondo scrive *il medesimo* Dante innanzi à lui anni¹⁴ cento cinquanta, e furono i principali *et i primarii* in Italia,¹⁵ Guido Guinezzelli¹⁶ Bolognese, e Guizzone¹⁷ Cavaliere, Gaudente¹⁸ d'Arezzo, e Buona-giunta da Lucca, e Guido da Messina, i quali tutti Dante di gran Lunga soverchiò di sentenze,¹⁹ e di politessa e d'eleganza, e di legiadria, in tanto ch'è²⁰ opinione di chi intende, che non sarà mai Uomo che Dante vantaggi in dire in rima: e veramente egli è²¹ ammirabil²² cosa la grandezza, e la dolcezza del dire suo prudente, sententioso, e grave, con varietà, e copia mirabile, con scienza di Filosofia, con notitia di Storie antichito²³ con tanta cognizione delle cose²⁴ moderne, che pare ad ogni atto essere stato presente.

Queste belle cose con gentilezza di rima esplicate prendono la mente di ciascuno che legge, e molto più di quelli, che più intendono. La fizione²⁵ sua fu mirabile, e piena di grande ingegno, e con grande ingegno trovata, con la²⁶ quale concorre discrezione²⁷ del Mondo, descrizione de' Cieli, e de' Pianeti, descrizione degli Huomini, meriti, e pene, della vita humana, felicità e miseria,²⁸ e mediocrità di vita intrà due extremi, nè credo che mai fosse chi prendesse²⁹ più ampia,³⁰ e sottile³¹ materia da potere esplicare la mente d'ogni suo concetto,

¹ R. omits *ed.*² R. *o.*³ C. R. *litterato. E.*⁴ C. *nè a. potuto, nè a. saputo.*⁵ C. *vedute vantaggiatamente*; R. *v. più vantaggiamente.*⁶ C. R. *è e.*⁷ R. *e.*⁸ Sic.⁹ R. *non aggiunse a quelli appena che.*¹² C. R. *di.*¹⁰ C. R. *La cagione di questo è che il s.*¹³ R. *al modo . . . e scolastico.*¹¹ R. *d. rima.*¹⁴ R. *circa anni.*¹² C. *e furono i principi in I.*; R. *e i primi furono in I.*¹⁶ R. *Guinizzelli.*¹⁸ Sic.; C. R. *Cavaliere Gaudente.*¹⁷ C. R. *Guittone.*¹⁹ R. *scienze.*²⁰ R. *che egli è.*²⁴ R. *storie.*²⁸ C. R. *f., m.*²¹ R. *ell' è.*²⁶ C. R. *finzione.*²⁹ R. *imprendesse.*²² C. R. *mirabil.*²⁶ C. R. *nella.*³⁰ C. R. *ampla.*²³ Sic.; C. R. *antiche.*²⁷ Sic.; C. R. *descrizione.*³¹ C. R. *fertile.*

per la varietà degli spiriti loquenti di diverse ragioni di cose, e di ¹ diversi Poeti, ² e di varii casi di fortuna.

Questa sua ³ principale, e *più rinomata* opera cominciò Dante avanti la Cacciata sua, e di poi in esilio la finì, come per essa opera si può vedere, e *conoscere* manifestamente. ⁴ Scrisse ancora Canzoni ⁵ morali, e Sonetti; le Canzoni ⁵ sue sono perfette, e limate, e leggiadre, e piene d'alte sententie, e tutte hanno generosi cominciamenti sì come quella Canzone ⁶ che comincia

" Amor che muovi tua virtù dal Cielo
Come il Sol lo splendore : "

dove fa ⁷ comparazione Filosofica, e sottile intra gli effetti del Sole: e gli effetti d'amore, e l'altra che comincia, " Tre Donne intorno al cor mi son venute, " e l'altra che comincia, " Donne ch'avete intelletto d'amore "; e così in molte altre Canzoni, ⁸ è sottile, limato, e scientifico, *dove che per lo contrario* ne' Sonetti non è di tanta virtù.

Queste sono l'Opere sue volgari, in Latino *poi* scrisse in prosa, et in verso: ⁹ in prosa un ⁹ Libro chiamato " Monarchia, " il quale ¹⁰ è scritto in ¹¹ modo disadorno, ¹² senza niuna gentilezza di dire, *nè forza d'ingegno*: scrisse ancora un'altro Libro intitolato da' volgari " Eloquenzia, " ¹³ *che caminò con qualche applausimento, ancora che disadorno non meno dell'altro*: ancora scrisse molte Pistole ¹⁴ in prosa: in versi scrisse alcune Egloghe, et il principio del Libro suo in versi Eroi, ma non riuscendo ¹⁵ lo stile non seguì ¹⁶ *più altro, mentre esso costumava di ricevere i sentimenti degli amici, e di pregarli d'informarsi del concetto che faceva il Mondo delle sue Opere, e quando sentiva che andava bene continuava, altrimenti tralasciava.*

Morì Dante nel ¹⁷ 1321 à Ravenna *con qualche dispiacere di vedersi perdere la vita fuori della sua Patria*. Ebbe ¹⁸ trà gli altri un suo figliuolo ¹⁹ chiamato Piero, ²⁰ il quale studiò in Legge, e divenne valente, e per la propria virtù, e per la memoria del Padre, che l'acquistava del favore si fece ²¹ grand' Uomo, e guadagnò assai, e fermò suo studio ²² à Verona, con assai buone facoltà.

Questo Messer Piero ebbe un figliuolo chiamato Dante, e di questo Dante nacque Lionardo, il quale oggi vive, et hà più figliuoli, nè è molto tempo che Lionardo antedetto venne à Firenze con altri giovani Veronesi bene in punto,

¹ C. R. cose, di d.

⁵ R. Canzone.

⁹ R. è un.

² C. R. paesi.

⁶ R. Canzona.

¹⁰ R. il qual libro.

³ R. suo'.

⁷ R. è.

¹¹ C. a.

⁴ C. R. apertamente.

⁸ R. versi.

¹² R. omits a modo disadorno, and reads scritto . . . senza.

¹³ Sic; C. R. i. De vulgari eloquentia.

¹⁴ R. Epistole.

¹⁶ R. non lo s.

¹⁸ C. R. Ebbe Dante.

¹⁵ C. R. non gli r.

¹⁷ R. negli anni.

¹⁹ Sic.

²⁰ R. un f. t. g. a. c. Piero.

²¹ C. R. virtù, e per lo favore (R. per f.) della memoria del Padre, si fece.

²² C. R. stato.

et honoratamente, e mi¹ venne à visitare, come amico della memoria del suo Proavo Dante: et io gli mostrai le Case di Dante, e de' suoi antichi, e gli diedi² notizia di molte cose à lui incognite, per essersi estranato³ *come dicemmo* lui, et i suoi dalla⁴ Patria, e così la fortuna questo Mondo gira, e permuta gli abitatori col volger *delle*⁵ sue rote.

Here ends the *Vita di Dante* in the alleged Boccacini version. The writer then continues his letter to Pietro Anelli as follows:

Ecco tutto quello che mi trovo trà le mie scritture del famoso Dante, se riuscirà di sua sodisfazione il raguaglio, non lo sò, ma sò bene che da pochi altri potrà ricevere lume maggiore. Hò stimato ancora à proposito di mandargli la copia, ugualissima all' originale dell' Aretino che n' è l'Auttoze, acciò V. S. vegga la differenza che vi è trà lo scrivere del suo tempo, e de' nostri giorni, ò pure trà il suo stile, e quello de' nostri Scrittori.⁶

The *Vita del Petrarca* in the Boccacini version is, as has already been stated, contained in a second letter to Pietro Anelli (*Lettera XIII*). After a few prefatory paragraphs the writer continues:

Approvo il pensiero di V. S. di voler continuare l' Historia del Petrarca, e di far ravnvvere di nuovo con un' aggiunta la memoria di quel celebre Huomo, che fù in fatti la gloria del suo Secolo, e se le mie occupationi che mi chiamano à materie più bizzare, non mi tenessero immerso con troppo assiduità la servirei volentieri delle memorie che mi chiede, pure per servirla mi sono sforzato per hora à racorre quel tanto che s' ha possuto havere della vita che desidera del detto Petrarca e del Boccaccio: e mi trovo appunto nella mia biblioteca di mano dell' Aretino che scrisse la vita che già gli mandai del Dante, anche quella del Petrarca et un poco del Boccaccio con il suo stile solito, senza alcuno abbellimento poetico, come potrà osservarlo, e comincia in questa maniera la sua relatione.

He then proceeds to give the *Vita del Petrarca* as follows:⁷

Francesco Petrarca Huomo di grand' ingegno, e non di minor virtù, nacque in Arezzo nel Borgo dell' Orto: la natività sua successe⁸ nell' anno di nostro Signore⁹ 1304 à dì 21 di Luglio, pòco innanzi il¹⁰ levar del Sole. Il Padre

¹ R. *me*.

² C. R. *diégli*.

³ R. *stranato*.

⁴ C. *della*.

⁵ C. R. *di*.

⁶ The letter does not end here, but the rest of it is not concerned with our subject.

⁷ As in the case of the *Vita di Dante*, the amplifications and additions in the Boccacini version are italicized, while C. and R. in the *apparatus criticus* stand, as before, for the editions of 1671 (Cinelli) and 1672 (Redi), respectively. It has already been noted (see above, p. 44, n. 2) that Solerti, the latest editor of Bruni's *Vite*, was aware of the existence of this version of the *Vita del Petrarca*, but did not trouble to examine it.

⁸ C. R. *fu*.

⁹ C. *nel*; R. *negli anni*.

¹⁰ R. *al*.

suo ebbe¹ nome Petracolo²: l'Avolo suo hebbe nome Parenzo; l'origine loro fù dall' Ancisa d' *honorati Parenti*: Petracolo² suo Padre venne ad abitare in Firenze,³ et ottenne giovinotto la Cittadinanza, alla quale pure haveva aspirato Parenzo suo Avolo, conosciuto dal Senato Huomo di studio, e di maneggi cominciò ad adoperarlo assai negli affari più importanti della Repubblica,⁴ però che molte volte mandato fù⁵ Ambasciatore della Città in gravissimi casi, non solamente in Venetia, in Genoa, in Napoli, et in Milano, ma in Roma per trattare col Legato del Pontefice da cui benignamente ricevuto, e trattato: fù etandio adoperato à gran fatti⁶ et in Palaggio un tempo fù Scriba sopra le Riformaggioni diputato, e fù Valent' huomo, et attivo al magior segno, et assai prudente.

Costui in quel naufraggio de' Cittadini di Firenze, quando sopravvenne la divisione trà⁷ Neri, e Bianchi, fù riputato sentire con parte Bianca, e per questa cagione insieme con gli altri fù cacciato di Firenze: il perche ridotto in⁸ Arezzo, quivi fe dimora, aiutando sua⁹ parte, e sua⁹ setta virilmente quanto bastò la speranza di dover ritornare à Casa; Di poi mancando la speranza, partì d'Arezzo, et andonne nella Corte di Roma, che si trovava in quei tempi in Avignone¹⁰ in Francia.

Clemente VI. l'adoperò¹¹ con assai honore, e guadagno, et ebbe il pensiero di rimandarlo in Italia al servizio del Cardinal Albernozzo? che con supremo comando reggeva della Sede Apostolica, tutto lo Stato Ecclesiastico, e che desiderava d'haveere appresso di se il Petrarca, per esser meglio instrutto delle cose della Toscana che questo intendeva ammirabilmente, ma però con molta humiltà si scusò d'andarvi, et allegò ragioni valevoli, che sodisfecero il Papa, contentandosi che facesse la sua dimora in Avignone, e quivi allevò due suoi figliuoli, de' quali l'uno hebbe nome Gherardo, e l'altro¹² Checco, e questo è quello che fu poi¹³ chiamato Petrarca, come in processo di questa sua¹⁴ vita diremo.

Il Petrarca dunque allevato in Avignone,¹⁵ comunque ei venne¹⁶ crescendo, si vide in lui gravità di costumi, et altezza d'ingegno, e¹⁷ fù di persona bellissimo, e bastò la formosità sua per ogni parte di sua¹⁸ vita. Apparate le Lettere, et uscito di quelli¹⁹ primi studii puerili, per comandamento del Padre si diede

¹ C. padre ebbe.

² R. Petracco.

³ C. R. abitò in F.

⁴ C. R. F., e fu adoperato assai nella Repubblica.

⁵ R. fu m.

⁶ C. R. casi; molte volte (R. casi, e m. v.) con altre commissioni adoperato a gran fatti.

⁷ R. fra.

⁸ C. R. ad.

⁹ R. suo.

¹⁰ C. R. in corte di R., la quale in que' tempi era nuovamente trasferita ad A. (R. a Vignone).

¹¹ C. R. In corte fu bene adoperato.

¹² C. G., l' a.

¹³ C. C.: questo è q. c. f. p.; R. Questi è quelli che poi fu.

¹⁴ R. suo.

¹⁶ R. c. v.

¹⁸ R. suo.

¹⁵ C. ad A.; R. a Vignone.

¹⁷ C. E'.

¹⁹ R. que'.

allo studio di Ragion civile, e perseverovvi alcuni anni,¹ *non senza qualche profitto*: ma la natura sua, la quale à più alte cose era tirata, poco stimando le Leggi, *che lui soleva chiamare "Scala di Letiggi,"*² e però riputando questa *scienza* troppo³ bassa materia al suo⁴ ingegno, nascosamente ogni suo studio à Tullio, à⁵ Virgilio, ed à Seneca, ed à Lattanzio, et agli altri Filosofi, e Poetici, Storici⁶ riferiva: egli⁷ ancora pronto à dire in prosa,⁸ pronto a' Sonetti, et à Canzoni⁹ morali, gentile, *che più era*, et ornato in ogni suo dire: in tanto sprezzava le Leggi, e loro¹⁰ tediose, e grosse commentationi di chiose, che se la riverentia del Padre non l'havesse¹¹ tenuto, non che fosse¹² ito dietro de¹³ Leggi, ma se le Leggi fossero¹⁴ ite dietro à lui non l'havrebbe¹⁵ accettate.

Successe in questo mentre la morte del Padre, *appunto mentre egli si trovava in Parigi, e venuto in Avignone*, fatto di sua Potestà,¹⁶ subito si diede tutto à quegli Studii apertamente *ne' quali era portato dal suo genio, e de' quali prima nascosto*¹⁷ Discepolo era stato¹⁸ per paura del Padre, e subito cominciò à volar la sua¹⁹ fama *nell' Italia, et altrove dandosi principio* à chiamarlo non Francesco²⁰ Petracchi,²¹ ma Francesco Petrarca, ampliato il nome *con quello del Padre* per riverenzia delle virtù sue,²² et hebbe tanta grazia, e legiadria d'intelletto, che *venne ad essere*²³ il primo, che questi sublimi studii già per lungo tempo caduti, ed ignoranti per l'altrui trascuraggine, ò pure dall'altrui trascuragine ignorati rivotò²⁴ à luce di cognizione: quali studii abbracciati da lui, crescendo da poi²⁵ montati sono nella presente altezza, e posti in credito, et in stima nelle scole de' più Sapienti, della qual cosa,²⁶ *non posso così brevemente passarla, per esser materia di molta importanza, et acciò che meglio s'intenda dal curioso Lettore, facendomi à dietro*²⁷ con breve discorso raccontar voglio, tutte le particolarità più requisite, ad una vera informazione.

La Lingua Latina, et ogni sua²⁸ perfettione, e grandezza fiorì massimamente nel tempo di Tullio, però che prima era stata non pulita, nè limata, nè sottile, ma salendo a poco a poco²⁹ *con la cura di questi, e di quegli altri Capi di Schuola*, a sua²⁸ perfettione nel tempo di Tullio, nel più alto colmo divenne:

¹ C. R. alcuno anno.

² C. le leggi e i litigi; R. le l., e i loro l.

³ C. R. r. quella essere l.

⁴ C. R. a suo.

⁵ R. e a.

⁶ C. R. poeti e s.

¹³ C. R. alle.

¹⁶ C. R. Dopo la morte del p., fatto di sua podestà.

¹⁷ C. R. nascoso.

²⁰ C. R. fama, e ad essere chiamato non F. (C. e non ad e. c. F.).

²¹ C. R. Petracchi.

²⁴ C. R. caduti, ed ignorati, rivotò.

²⁵ C. R. i quali da poi crescendo.

²⁶ C. R. altezza: della qual cosa.

⁷ R. lui.

⁸ R. pronto a dire in versi, p. a d. in p.

⁹ C. R. canzone.

¹⁰ R. e le loro.

¹¹ R. lo avesse.

¹² C. non che esso f.; R. non che egli f.

¹⁴ R. fussono.

¹⁵ C. R. arebbe.

¹⁸ R. e. s. n. d.

¹⁹ C. R. v. s. (R. suo).

²² R. delle s. v.

²³ C. R. che fu.

²⁷ R. in dietro.

²⁸ R. suo.

²⁹ R. appoco appoco.

Dopo l'età di Tullio cominciò *nuovamente* a cadere, ò *almanco* à discendere,¹ come infino² à quel tempo era montata, e non passarono molti anni, che ricevuto avea grandissimo³ calo, e diminutione; e puossi dire *con raggione, e con verità* che le Lettere, e gli studii della Lingua Latina andassero parimente con lo stato della Republica di Roma; perochè *questa* infino all'età di Tullio ebbe *sommo* accrescimento *nelle grandezza e nella potenza, havendo sempre vinto più di quello che s'era imaginato di vincere*; Di poi perduto dal Popolo Romano la libertà,⁴ *sottomessa* dalla Signoria, e *forza* degli Imperadori,⁵ i quali non restarono d'uccidere, e di disfare⁶ gli Uomini di pregio; insieme col buono stato della Città di Roma, ferì *medesimamente* la buona dispositione degli studii, e delle Lettere, *che non possono avanzarsi senza pace*.

Ottaviano che trà gli Imperadori fù il meno reo,⁷ *non lasciò con tutto ciò di fare* uccidere⁸ migliaia di Cittadini Romani, e di quelli particolarmente che *potevano portargli dell'impedimento*. Tiberio, Caligola,⁹ Claudio, e Nerone, *ch'erano spogliati affatto d'umanità*, non vi lasciarono¹⁰ quasi persona che avesse viso d'Uomo *se non quelli pochi, e buona parte stranieri, che ebbero la fortuna di dar nel loro humore*. Seguì poi Gabba,¹¹ et Ottone, e Vitellio i quali in pochi Mesi disfecero¹² il tutto.¹³

Dopo costoro non vi furono più Imperadori di sangue Romano, imperochè¹⁴ la Terra s'era annichilata¹⁵ *dalla crudeltà* de'¹⁶ precedenti Imperadori, che *con le tante straggi* niuna persona d'alcun preggio vi era rimasa: Vespasiano che successe nell'Impero à Vitellio¹⁷ trasse il suo origine di quei di Rieti,¹⁸ e così ancora Tito, e Domiziano suoi figliuoli: Nerva Imperadore fu di¹⁹ Narni: Traiano adottato da Nerva fù di Spagna; Adriano ancor lui fù di Spagna; Severo d'Africa;²⁰ Alesandro d'Asia; Probo d'Ungaria;²¹ Diocleriano²² di Schiavonia, e Constantino d'Inghilterra.²³

*Alcuno mi domanderà forse à che proposito io dico questo?*²⁴ *a che proposito io rispondo?* per dimostrare²⁵ che come la Città di Roma fu annichilata dagli Imperadori tiranni, e perversi,²⁶ *avidì del sangue, mà non amici della vita de' Romani*, così²⁷ gli studii, e le Lettere Latine riceverono simil ruina, e diminuzione, in tanto che all'estremo quasi non si trovava chi lettere Latine

¹ C. R. a cadere e a d.

² R. per fino.

³ R. gran.

⁴ C. R. perduta la libertà del p. r.

¹² R. disferono.

⁵ C. R. per la s. degl' i.

¹³ C. R. l' un l' altro.

⁶ R. mai d' u. e disfare.

¹⁴ C. R. perochè.

⁷ C. R. O. che fu il m. r. imperadore.

¹⁵ C. t. era a.; R. t. era sì a.

⁸ C. fece u.; R. fè u.

¹⁶ C. R. da'.

⁹ C. Galigula; R. Galicula.

¹⁷ C. R. V., il quale fu i. dopo Vitellio.

¹⁰ C. lasciaro.

¹⁸ C. R. fu di quel di R.

¹¹ Sic; C. R. Galba.

¹⁹ C. R. da.

²⁰ R. Spagna; Severo d'Affrica: Adriano ancora fu di S.

²¹ C. R. Ungheria.

²² Sic; C. R. Diocleziano.

²⁵ C. Solo per d.; R. S. per mostrare.

²³ C. R. Schiavonia: C. fu d'I.

²⁶ C. R. i. perversi tiranni.

²⁴ C. R. A c. p. si dice q. da me?

²⁷ R. e così.

con alcuna gentilezza sapeſſe; e *per maggior danno, e ruina di queſte* ſopra-
vennero in Italia i Goti, et i Longobardi,¹ Nattioni barbare, e ſtrane, i quali
affatto quaſi ſpenſero² ogni cognitione di Lettere, come appare negli³ Inſtro-
menti in quei tempi rogati, e fatti, de' quali *effettivamente* niente potrebbe
eſſere più material coſa, nè più groſſa, e rozza *maniera di ſcriver latino,*
onde vi è ragione di dire che queſte Nattioni hanno portato la-corruttion
della Lingua in Italia.

Ricuperata poi⁴ la libertà de' Popoli Italici per la cacciata de' Longobardi,
i quali due cento, e quattro⁵ anni tenuto⁶ aveano l' Italia⁷ occupata, le Città
di Toſcana, e le altre⁸ *circonvicine* cominciarono à riaverſi, et à dare opera
agli ſtudii, et al quanto limare,⁹ quel¹⁰ groſſo ſtile¹¹ *corrotto, e guasto*; e coſì a
poco a poco¹² *le Lettere* vennero a ripigliare il vigore,¹³ mà molto debilmente,¹⁴
e ſenza vero giuditio di gentilezza alcuna, più¹⁵ attendendo¹⁶ à dire in rima
volgare che ad altro.

*In queſta maniera*¹⁷ per infino al tempo di Dante lo ſtilo¹⁸ litterato pochi
ſapevano, e quelli¹⁹ pochi il ſapevano molto²⁰ male, come dicemmo nella vita
di Dante: Francesco Petrarca fù il primo, il quale ebbe tanta gratia d'ingegno,
che riconobbe, e rivoçò in luce l'antica legiadria dello ſtilo¹⁸ perduto, e ſpentò;
e poſto che in lui perfetto non foſſe, pur da ſe²¹ vide et aperſe la via, à queſta
perfettione, ritrovando l'opere di Tullio, e quelle guſtando, et intendendo,
adattandoſi quanto potè, e ſeppe à quella elegantiffima, e perfettiſſima, facon-
dia e certo²² fece aſſai ſolo à dimoſtrare²³ la via à quelli che dopo lui havevano
à ſeguire.²⁴

Dato adunque²⁵ à queſti ſtudii il Petrarca, e manifeſtando la ſua²⁶ virtù
inſino da giovane fù molto onorato, e reputato; *di modo che Gregorio XI.*
Pontefice Romano le richieſe con intentione di volerlo per Segretario della ſua
Corte²⁷ ma non volle *in conto alcuno* conſentirvi, ſi perche non ſi curava molto
del guadagno,²⁸ *come ancora perche non voleva in quelle anguſtie, e moleſtie*
nelle quali ſi travava la Sede Apoſtolica incaricarſi d'un tanto carico.

Niente di manco e da queſto, e da altri Papi accettò molti beneficii per
poter vivere in otio, e vita privata, *particolarmente* ſi fè Chierico Secolare,²⁹

¹ R. G. e L. ² R. s. q. ³ R. per gli ſtrumenti. ⁴ C. R. di poi.

⁵ C. ducento quattro; R. dugentoquaranta. ⁶ R. tenuta.

⁷ C. R. Italia.

⁹ R. a limare.

¹¹ C. ſtilo.

⁸ C. e a.

¹⁰ C. R. il.

¹² R. appoco appoco.

¹³ C. R. poco, vennero ripigliando vigore.

¹⁴ R. debolmente.

¹⁵ C. R. piuttosto.

¹⁹ R. que'.

²³ R. moſtrare.

¹⁶ R. attendevano.

²⁰ C. R. aſſai.

²⁴ R. dovevano ſeguitare.

¹⁷ C. R. E coſì.

²¹ R. pure egli da perſe ſolo.

²⁶ R. Datòſi ad.

¹⁸ R. ſtile.

²² R. per c.

²⁶ R. m. ſuo.

²⁷ C. R. reputato; e dal Papa fu richieſto di volerlo per s. di ſua (R. ſuo) c.

²⁸ C. R. ma non conſentì (R. non lo c.) mai, nè prezzò il g.

²⁹ C. R. N. d. m., per poter v. in o. con vita onorata, accettò b. e feſſi cherico s.
(Solerti reads c. regolare).

ma¹ questo non lo fè tanto di proprio movimento,² quanto che costretto³ da necessità, perche dal Padre ò poco, ò niente⁴ d'heredità gli era rimasa,⁵ e come che haveva una sorella in maritarla quasi tutto quel poco d' heredità paterna se n'era andata.⁶

Gherardo suo fratello *allevato in una certa semplicità di vita, hebbe da questa l'inclinazione portata allo Stato Monacale, à che condescese volentieri il Padre à farlo Monaco, vedendo l'impossibilità di mantenersi nel Secolo senza cadere in necessità*; e così risolvette d'entrare nella Religione più rigorosa, et austera, come quella de' Padri della Certosa, nella quale perseverando in un corso di molti anni finì la sua vita.⁷

Gli honori del Petrarca furono tali, che non si trova, che niuno Uomo Letterato della⁸ sua Età, fosse onorato più di lui,⁹ nè¹⁰ solamente in Francia, ma di quà da' Monti in Italia,¹¹ poiche passando d'Avignone in Roma per l'occasione dell'anno Santo nel 1350 con Lettere del Pontefice Clemente VI. venne solennemente Coronato Poeta,¹² e dal Cardinale Egidio Albernoz Legato della Sede Apostolica in Italia onorato di varii onori: anzi egli medesimo scrisse¹³ in una sua Epistola, che nel ritornare dopo il Giubileo da Roma in Avignone, fece¹⁴ la via d' Arezzo per¹⁵ vedere la Terra dove era nato, e sentendosi di sua¹⁶ venuta, tutti i Cittadini gli uscirono in contra,¹⁷ come se gli fusse¹⁸ venuto un Rè.

In somma è cosa certa, che la fama del suo merito era così grande per tutta l'Italia, e così sommo l'honore a lui tribuito da ogni Città, e Terra che pareva così¹⁹ mirabile, et incredibile agli occhi istessi che vedevano;²⁰ nè solamente fù onorato da Popoli di prima qualità, e mezzana, mà da' sommi e grandi Principi, e Signori da' quali fu desiderato, et honorato,²¹ et con grandissime provisioni appresso di se²² tenuto; con²³ Messer Galeazzo Visconti dimora fece alcun tempo, con somma gratia, pregato da quel Signore che appresso à lui is degnasse di restare²⁴ per honorar della sua presenza, il suo Stato, e la

¹ C. R. e.³ C. R. costretto.⁵ C. R. gli rimase.² C. R. t. di suo proposito.⁴ R. P. p. o n.⁶ C. R. r., e in maritare una sua sorella, quasi tutta l'eredità p. si convertì.⁷ C. R. G. s. f. si fè monaco di Certosa, ed in quella religione p. f. sua (R. suo) vita.⁸ C. R. di.⁹ C. R. fu p. o. di lui.¹⁰ R. non.¹¹ C. R. n. s. oltre a' monti, ma di qua, in I.¹² C. R. I., passando (R. I. E. p.) a R., s. fu c. poeta (R. come p.).¹³ C. s. e. m.; R. scrive lui m.¹⁴ C. R. che nel 1350 (R. negli anni 1350) venne a R. per lo giubileo, e nel tornare da Roma f.¹⁵ R. pel.¹⁶ R. suo.¹⁷ R. gli si fecero incontro.¹⁸ R. c. se f.¹⁹ Sic, for cosa.²⁰ C. R. e conchiudendo, per t. I. era sì grande la fama e l'onore a lui t. da o. c. e t., e da tutti i popoli, che p. cosa i. e m.²¹ C. R. nè s. da' popoli e da' mezzani (R. da' p. m.) ma da' s. e g. p. e s. fu d. e onorato.²² R. loro.²³ C. R. Perocchè con.²⁴ C. d. di stare; R. degnasse s.

sua Persona; e similmente¹ dal Signor di Padova fu molto honorato, *havendoli spedito Ambasciatore espresso per pregarlo di andare ad honorare quella sua Città*; et era tanta la riputatione sua, e la riverenza che gli era portata da quei² Signori che spesse volte con lui lunga contesa facevano di volerlo mandare innanzi nell' andare, ò nell' entrare³ in alcun luogo, e preferirlo in onore.

Così il Petrarca con questa vita honorata *da Principi da Popoli, e quasi da tutte le Nationi, non solo che l' havevano veduto, mà che non lo conoscevano che per fama, vita appunto gradita all' Universo, e con la quale visse*⁴ fino⁵ all' estremo di sua vita,⁶ *senza ch'è mai cadesse nel pensiero de' Magnati che una ferma costanza d' honorarlo, e servirlo.*

Ebbe il Petrarca negli studii suoi una dote⁷ singolare, *che di rado si trova in altri cioè che fù attissimo in prosa, et in verso,*⁸ e nell' uno, e nell' altro stilo⁹ fece moltissime¹⁰ opere. La prosa sua è leggiadra e fiorita; il verso è limato, e ritondo, et assai alto: e questa gratia dell' uno stilo¹¹ e dell' altro è stato¹² *come ho detto in pochi, ò in nullo fuor di lui, poichè*¹³ pare che la natura tiri ò all' uno ò all' altro, e quale vantaggia per natura à quello si suole l' Uomo dare.

Da questo¹⁴ advienne¹⁵ che Virgilio, *Poeta tanto eccellentissimo, e celebratissimo nel verso,*¹⁶ valse così poco in prosa,¹⁷ *che tutto quello ch' egli scrisse, non solamente non hebbe applauso, ma di più servì à molti di riso, e di scherzo: cosa che apparve molto differente nella persona di Tullio, il quale fù il Sommo Maestro nel dire in prosa, poichè non scrisse periodo che non havesse l' approbatione di tutto il Mondo, et al contrario niente valse nella compositione de' Versi.*¹⁸

Questo medesimo veggiamo negli¹⁹ altri Poeti, et Oratori *ne' quali non ambidue, ma l' uno di questi due stili è stata*²⁰ la più eccellente loro gloria: ²¹ e per me non mi ricordo haver letto ch' alcuno fosse mai riuscito in amendue gli stili, *ancorchè tutti si provassero nell' uno, e nell' altro.*²² Il Petrarca solo è quello che trà tutti gli Oratori, e Poeti *che son comparsi fin' hora* hà portato il privilegio, e la dote singolare di riuscire eccellente nell' uno, e l' alto²³ stilo, et in amendue compose Opere molte, e *come credo in eguale*

¹ C. R. simile. ² R. quegli. ³ R. nello a., e nello c.

⁴ C. R. con q. v. onorata e gradita (R. v. o., e riputata, e g.) visse.

⁵ C. R. infino. ⁶ C. R. età. ⁷ R. dota. ⁸ C. R. a. a p. e a v.

⁹ C. R. e nell' u. stilo (R. stile) e nell' a. f.

¹⁰ C. R. assai. ¹¹ R. stile. ¹² Sic; C. R. stata. ¹³ C. R. perch'è.

¹⁴ C. R. Onde. ¹⁵ Sic; C. addivenne; R. adviene.

¹⁶ C. R. V. nel verso eccellentissimo.

¹⁷ C. niente in prosa valse o scrisse; R. n. in p. s.

¹⁸ C. R. e T. s. m. nel (R. in) d. in p., niente valse in versi.

¹⁹ C. degli. ²⁰ Sic. ²¹ C. R. essere stato la sua eccellente loda.

²² C. R. ma in amendue gli stili niuno di loro, che mi ricordi aver letto.

²³ Sic; for altro.

numero in Versi, che in prosa, le quali ¹ non fà bisogno raccontare, perche son note *da per tutto, et a tutti.*

Morì il Petrarca *con nome del più illustre Uomo del suo Secolo nella materia delle Lettere*, nel Castello d' Arquate posto nel territorio della Città di Padoa,² dove in sua ³ vecchiezza ritirandosi ⁴ con proposito di goder *una buona quiete d'animo, et una vita otiosa,*⁵ e separata d' ogni impedimento, haveva eletto *un tal luogo per sua*⁶ dimora, *sia rispetto al sito, che non è degli inferiori, ò sia per altra ragione: basta che quivi visse alcuni anni, dove non lasciava d' esser visitato da' principali Uomini del tempo; e la sua fama era così accreditata che quasi in tutte le Città d' Italia, dopo capitata la nuova dalla sua morte gli furono celebrate solennissime esequie, con Orationi funebri.*

Tenne il Petrarca mentre che visse *stretta e fedele amicitia e corrispondenza* con ⁶ Giovanni Boccaccio ⁷ in quell' età famoso ne' medesimi studii, *di modo che si comunicavano l'un l'altro le Opere che componevano, e con gran sincerità si chiedevano i sentimenti; più volte procurarono l'occasioni di visitarsi, come in fatti gli riuscì spessissime volte, ma per quello che riguardava l'uso delle Pistole, questo si faceva molto allo spesso, di modo che la maggior gloria d' uno de' due era l' haver un fascio di Epistole dell' altro.*

In questa maniera adunque morto ⁸ il Petrarca le Muse Fiorentine, che tenevano il vanto sopra tutte le altre quasi per hereditaria successione rimasono ⁹ al Boccaccio, et in lui risedette la fama de' predetti ¹⁰ studii, e fù successione ancor nel tempo, perochè quando Dante morì, il Petrarca era d' età d' anni diciassette,¹¹ *che vuol dir nel vero tempo di dar principio à farsi conoscere capace della successione alle Muse*, e quando dappoi morì il Petrarca,¹² era il Boccaccio di minore età di lui anni nove, e così di mano si succedettero insieme le nostre Muse Fiorentine.¹³

La vita del Boccaccio *famoso quanto ogni altro*, non scriveremo noi al presente,¹⁴ non perche egli ¹⁵ non meriti loda,¹⁶ mà perche à me non sono *sin' hora* note le particolarità della sua ¹⁷ generatione, e di sua ¹⁸ privata conditione, e vita, senza la cognizione delle quali cose, non si può scrivere *con soddisfazione di chi deve leggere;*¹⁹ ma però L' Opere, et i libri suoi mi sono

¹ C. R. *Il P. s. è q. che per dota singolare nell' uno e nell' altro stilo* (R. in l' u. e in l' a. stile) *fu eccellente, ed opere molte compose in p. e in v., le q.*

² C. R. *M. il P. ad Arquate* (R. Arquata), *castello del Padovano* (R. adds l' anno 1374).

³ R. suo.

⁴ C. R. *ritraendosi.*

⁵ C. R. *r. per sua* (R. suo) *quiete e* (R. a) *v. o.*

⁶ C. R. *grandissima a. con.* ⁸ C. R. *studii: sicchè m.* ¹⁰ R. *poetici.*

⁷ C. Boccacci.

⁹ C. rimasero.

¹¹ R. *era di anni 17.*

¹² R. *e q. il P. morì.*

¹³ C. R. *e così per successione andarono le muse.*

¹⁴ C. R. *iscriveremo al p.*

¹⁷ R. *di suo.*

¹⁵ R. *e'.*

¹⁸ R. *e sì di suo.*

¹⁶ C. R. *m. ogni grandissima l.*

¹⁹ C. R. *cose, scrivere non si debbe* (R. debba).

bastamente conosciute, e noti,¹ dalle quali argomento, e veggio ch'egli² fù di grandissimo ingegno, e di grandissimo studio, e molto laborioso, *come si può vedere nel gran numero delle cose che scrisse di sua mano che pare cosa maravigliosa, et incredibile.*³

Non cominciò il Boccaccio ad imparar le Lettere che molto grande,⁴ *havendo passato la sua età fresca in altri esercitii, ma poi per non sò quale ispirazione nell'età di diciadotto anni si diede à studiar la Lingua Latina, e per questa cagione non hebbe mai detta Lingua in⁵ sua⁶ balia, et haveva gran fatica nel scriverla, e molto più nel parlarla; Ma per quel che scrisse in volgare si vede che naturalmente, egli era eloquentissimo, et haveva ingegno Oratorio: dell' Opere sue scritte in Latino la "Genealogia Deorum" tiene⁷ il principato sopra tutte le altre; non mancarono però di quelli, che andarono seminando, non essere stata questa sua Opera assoluta, à causa che non haveva come s'è detto in suo comando assoluto la Lingua Latina, ma però è certo che la compositione è sua intieramente, ma se di poi fosse stata da qualche suo amico purificata nel linguaggio non sò, sò bene che nell' idioma volgare egli riuscì più perfetto degli altri nella purità, et eccellenza della Lingua.*

Fu molto impedito dalla Poverà, il povero Boccaccio, nè seppe mai per colmo di maggior dispiacere contentarsi del suo stato⁸ *che cambiò più volte dal minimo al più, senza passar mai la mediocrità; anzi sempre querele, e lagni di se stesso scrisse,⁹ ne sapeva discorrer con chi si sia senza lamentarsi della fortuna: tenero, e benigno fù di natura, mà disdegnato,¹⁰ et iracundo al maggior segno, e bene spesso per poca cosa entrava in gran colera la qual¹¹ cosa guastò molto i fatti suoi, poiche¹² nè di¹³ se haveva, nè d' essere appresso i Principi ebbe mai sofferenza;¹⁴ e veramente non gli mancò l' occasione d' avanzarsi, ma la pazienza per i mezzi.*

Lasciando dunque¹⁵ stare il Boccaccio, et indugiando la vita sua ad altro tempo tornerò à Dante, et al Petrarca delli¹⁶ quali dico così; che se comparazione¹⁷ si debba¹⁸ fare trà¹⁹ questi due prestantissimi Uomini, le vite de' quali sono state descritte²⁰ da noi, affermo che amendue furono valentissimi, e prestantissimi e famosissimi, e degni di grandissima²¹ comendazione, e loda;

¹ C. R. *mi sono assai noti.*

² R. *lui.*

³ C. R. *laborioso, e tante cose scrisse di sua (R. suo) propria mano, che è una maraviglia.*

⁴ C. R. *Apparè grammatica da grande.*

⁶ R. *suo.*

⁵ C. R. *mai la l. latina molto in.*

⁷ R. *le Genologie D. tengono.*

⁸ C. R. *poverà; e mai si contentò di suo s.*

⁹ R. *scrive.*

¹⁰ *Sic.*

¹¹ C. R. *Tenero fu di n. e disdegnoso (R. sdegnoso), la qual.*

¹² C. R. *perchè.*

¹⁷ R. *comperazione.*

¹³ C. R. *da.*

¹⁸ R. *si dee.*

¹⁴ C. R. *a. a' p. e signori (R. a p. e a s.) e. s.*

¹⁹ C. *intra.*

¹⁵ C. R. *adunque.*

²⁰ C. *sono scritte; R. sono state scritte.*

¹⁶ R. *de'.*

²¹ Solerti reads *grande.*

pure volendoli¹ insieme con trito esame di virtù, e di meriti comparare,² e vedere in qual di loro è maggiore eccellenza, dico ch' egli è da fare contesa non piccola, perche sono quasi pari nel corso loro alla fama, et alla gloria, de' quali due parlando possiamo³ dire in questo modo.⁴

Che Dante nella vita attiva e civile fu di maggior preggio ch' il Petrarca, perche nell' armi per la Patria, e nel governo della Repubblica laudabilmente si adoperò: non si può dire questa parte del Petrarca, però ch'è⁵ nè in Città libera stette, la quale avesse a governare civilmente, nè in armi fù mai per la Patria, la qual cosa sappiamo esser gran merito di virtù: oltre à questo Dante da esilio, e da povertà incacciato,⁶ non abbandonò mai i suoi⁷ preclari⁸ studii, ma in tante difficoltà scrisse la sua⁹ bell' Opera: il Petrarca in vita tranquilla, e soave, et honorata le opere¹⁰ sue compose: concedesi che *negli studii* è più¹¹ da desiderare la bonaccia *che la tempesta*, mà niente di manco¹² è di maggior virtù nell' avversità della fortuna poter conservare la mente agli studii, massime¹³ quando di buono stato si cade in cattivo: ¹⁴ ancora in scientia di Filosofia e nelle matematiche Dante fù più dotto, e più perfetto,¹⁵ perochè gran tempo gli diede opera, si che il Petrarca in questa parte non è pari¹⁶ al¹⁷ Dante.

Per tutte queste ragioni pare che Dante in onore debba essere preferito: ma volgendo¹⁸ carta, e dicendo le ragioni del Petrarca si può rispondere al primo argomento della vita attiva, e civile, che il Petrarca fù più saggio, e prudente¹⁹ in elegger vita quieta, et otiosa, che travagliarsi nella Repubblica, e nelle contese, e nelle sette civili, le quali sovente gittavo²⁰ tal frutto, quale à Dante adivenne,²¹ *che vuol dire d'essere cacciato dalla Patria*, e disperso quà e là dalla²² malvagità degli Huomini, et ingratitudine²³ de' Popoli, *per non dir dalla perversità del destino, ch'è quello che si suole il più accusare nelle congiunture sinistre dagli afflitti*.

Certo è che Giano²⁴ della Bella suo vicino doveva servire di grande esempio al Dante, perochè questo Messire aveva affettuosamente resi molti, e molti serviggi al Popolo di Firenze, et in occasioni d' Ambasciarie, et in altre, con tutto ciò il Popolo, scordato di tanti beneficii lo discacciò per falsi sospetti, d' piccioli indizii dalla Città, mandandolo in esilio, dove morì di là à poco tempo; la qual cosa doveva servire di sufficiente esempio al buon Dante; et in luogo di mendicar gli honori, et i governi nella Repubblica, faceva di

¹ R. volendosi.² R. comperare.³ R. potiamo.⁴ C. R. q. m. cioè.⁵ R. del P. q. p., perochè (C. perchè).⁶ C. R. incalzato.⁷ R. a. i. s.⁸ Sic.⁹ R. suo.¹⁰ C. R. onorata e in grandissima bonaccia l' o.¹¹ C. R. più è.¹² R. non è pari in q. p.²¹ R. avvenne.¹³ R. meno.¹⁷ C. R. a.²² C. R. per la.¹⁸ R. massimamente.¹⁸ R. preferito. Volgendo.²³ C. e per la 'ngratitudine.¹⁴ C. R. reo.¹⁹ R. e più p.²⁴ C. R. E c. G.¹⁵ R. più perfetto, e p. d.²⁰ Sic; C. R. gittano.

*mestieri ritirarsi, e prevenir di buon' hora quelle tempeste, che in tanta copia gli sopraggiunsero poi.*¹

Ancora si può rispondere in questa medesima parte, che riguarda la² vita attiva, che il Petrarca fù *più destro, più prudente, e più costante nel saper guadagnare prima, e ritenere poi la grazia de' Principi*³ *sino all' ultimo, à dispetto d' ogni qualunque invidia; nè andò mai mutando, e variando come fece Dante,*⁴ *il quale pareva che pigliasse piacere di passar dall' amicizia d' un Signore à quella d' un' altro, e bene spesso perdeva quella d' ambidue:* Certo è che il Petrarca nel vivere in reputazione, et in vita honorata appresso tutti i Principi, Signori, e Popoli dell' Universo non fù senza grandissima virtù, sapienza, costanza,⁵ *la qual cosa rese molto più illustre la sua fama, e più gloriosa la sua memoria, perche una delle qualità principali d' un virtuoso è quella di sapersi conservare nella grazia di tutti.*

Alla parte che si dice, che nell'⁶ avversità della fortuna Dante conservò sempre ferma la sua mente agli studii; io rispondo che il Petrarca la conservò ancora intatta, e costante nelle prosperità; e qui vi è una questione da mettere in campo, cioè se sia maggior virtù di ritenere la mente ferma nell' avversità, ò nelle prosperità, non ci è dubbio alcuno, che non sia gran costanza d' animo quella di sapersi mantener fermo di mente, nelle persecuzioni della sinistra fortuna, ma si può rispondere ancora che nella vita felice, e nella prosperità, e nella bonaccia non è minor virtù ritenere la mente agli studii, che tenerla nell' avversità perche più corrompono la mente degli Huomini le cose prospere che le avverse, essendo capitali nemici degli studii.

La Gola, il Sonno, e l' oziose piume.⁷

Se in Filosofia, et in Astrologia,⁸ e nell' altre scienze Matematiche fù più dotto Dante, che il confesso, e consento, dir si può, che in molte altre cose il Petrarca fù più dotto che Dante, perche nella scienza delle Lettere, e nella cognitione della Lingua Latina Dante fù molto inferiore al Petrarca, e così il testimoniarono tutti i Letterati che havevano conosciuto l' uno, e l' altro.

Due parti sono nella Lingua Latina, cioè due cose sono che formano la sua divisione prosa, e versi; nell' una, e nell' altra di amendue è superiore al Dante il Petrarca, perche in prosa lungamente è più eccellente, e nel verso ancora è più sublime, e più ornato di quello è Dante:⁹ si che in tutta la Lingua Latina

¹ C. R. v., dal quale il popolo di F. aveva ricevuto tanti benefizi, e poi il discacciò (R. cacciò) e morì in e., s. e. doveva esser a D. di non si travagliare (R. non travagliarsi) nel governo della r.

² C. R. parte della.

³ C. R. il P. fu più costante in ritenere l' amicizia de' p.

⁴ C. R. perchè non a. mutando, e (R. nè) v. come fè D.

⁵ C. R. E certo il v. in r. ed in v. onorata da tutti i s. e p. non fu s. g. v., e s., e c.

⁶ R. nelle. ⁷ C. R. La gola, il s. (R. e' l s.), e l' o. p. sono c. n. d. s. ⁸ R. f., e a.

⁹ Sic; C. R. ornato, che non è il verso di Dante.

Dante per certo non è pari al Petrarca: nel dire volgare il Petrarca in Cantone ¹ è pari ² al ³ Dante, et in Sonetti ⁴ il vantaggia: confesso niente dimanco ⁵ che Dante nell'opera sua principale vantaggia ogni opera del Petrarca.

Bisogna adunque conchiudere che ciascuno ⁶ ha sua eccellentia in parte, et in parte è superato: l'essere ⁷ il Petrarca insignito di Corona Poetica, *con tanto applauso*, e non già il Dante, niente importa à questa comparazione, ⁸ pero che molto è da stimare più il meritar Corona, che l'haverla ⁹ ricevuta, massime perche la virtù è certa, e la Corona tal volta per lieve giuditio, così a chi non la merita, come a chi la merita ¹⁰ dar si puote, *come in effetto succede allo spesso, e basta che la fortuna conduca un' Uomo al punto nell' inclinazione d'un Principe, per farlo coronar come Principe.*

Having concluded the *Vita del Petrarca* the writer of the letter resumes his address to his correspondent as follows:

Questo è quanto io posso mandargli per hora in sodisfattione del suo desiderio, nè altro voglio aggiungere del mio à quello scrisse con tanta schiettezza un' Aretino, prima, perche non tengo in fatti materia, e quando anche mi trovassi qualche cosa di più, stimarei io medesimo il tutto sospetto, mentre l' Aretino vide le cose più da vicino, e per conseguenza hebbe campo d' informarsi da viventi dell' attioni di questi grand' Huomini, e come quello che intendeva la vera arte dello scrivere materie di questa natura, registrò quel tanto che fù degno d'esser notato.¹¹

From a careful study of the material presented above the following conclusions may be drawn:

First, that the "additional matter" in the Boccalini versions is not "authentic," in the sense that it came from the hand of Bruni, as claimed, though it may have been the work of Boccalini, the alleged writer of the letters; but in view of the circumstances in which the letters were published, and having regard to Leti's avowed methods of manipulation, it was more probably the work of Leti, the editor of the letters.

Second, that the authentic matter (that is, the matter taken direct from the traditional text of Bruni's *Vite*) contained in the Boccalini versions was derived either from a manuscript of the same type as that from which Cinelli printed the text of the *editio princeps*, or, which seems more likely, from the text of the *editio princeps* itself.

¹ Sic; C. R. *canzone*. ⁴ C. R. *D.*; *in s.*

⁷ R. *Essere*.

² R. *v. in c. il P. è p.* ⁵ R. *nientedimeno*.

⁸ R. *comperazione*.

³ C. R. *a*.

⁶ C. R. *Eperò, conchiudendo, ciascuno*.

⁹ R. *che averla*.

¹⁰ R. *a chi non merita, come a chi m.*

¹¹ This letter, like the previous one, concludes with general remarks which are beside our present subject.

That a text of the Cinelli type (as printed in the edition of 1671), and not a text of the Redi type (as printed in the edition of 1672), was the foundation of the Boccalini version of the *Vita di Dante* is clearly apparent from the following comparative table, in which are registered the most striking instances in which the Boccalini version is identical with the Cinelli text, where that differs from the Redi¹ text.

B. = Boccalini; C. = Cinelli; R. = Redi; the numerical references are to page and note (in the *apparatus criticus*).

51 5	B. C. alcun luogo	R. alcuni luoghi
52 6	B. C. tritavo	R. tritavolo
52 7	B. C. figliuoli	R. fratelli
52 19	B. C. vicino alle case	R. verso le case
53 2	B. C. schiere equestri	R. schiere equestri, cioè de' cavalieri
53 21	B. C. dicono gli Aretini	R. dicono sconfitti gli Aretini
53 26	B. C. questa virtù più tosto avesse	R. questa virtù avesse
53 32	B. C. tornò Dante	R. tornatosi Dante
54 17	B. C. gioventù	R. giovinezza
54 25	B. C. diversi tempi	R. vari tempi
55 2	B. C. Seneca e Varrone	R. Varrone e Seneca
55 4	B. C. moglie, figliuoli, et offizi	R. moglie, ufici
55 6	B. C. molto frivoli	R. molto fievoli
55 11	B. C. civile, onesta	R. civilmente ed onesta
55 13	B. C. venuto	R. pervenuto
55 31	B. C. passa con piede asciutto	R. passa così asciuttamente
56 1	B. C. lungo spazio	R. lungo spazio di tempo
56 2	B. C. sopravvenne un' altra	R. sopravvenne di nuovo un' altra
56 11	B. C. in pubblico e privato	R. publice et privatim
56 14	B. C. trovossi in molti la divisione	R. trovossi la divisione
56 17	B. C. distesi	R. discesi
56 20	B. C. la terra	R. la città
56 21	B. C. l' altra parte	R. l' altra parte de' Bianchi
57 2	B. C. anche loro	R. ancora essi
57 5	B. C. perturbatori	R. turbatori
57 25	B. C. consiglio tenuto	R. consiglio tenuto in Santa Trinità
58 2	B. C. Carlo di Valois a Firenze	R. Carlo a Firenze
58 3	B. C. ricevuto	R. onorevolmente ricevuto
58 5	B. C. cacciò la parte Bianca per rivelazione	R. cacciò la parte Bianca. La cagione fu per rivelazione
58 9	B. C. d' adoperarsi	R. di adoperar si

¹ A peculiarity of the Redi text, which does not occur either in the Cinelli text or in the Boccalini versions, is the frequent use of *suo* or *suo'* for *sua* before a feminine substantive. This peculiarity is registered in the *apparatus criticus* as it occurs.

58 27 B. C. Cante de' Gabrielli	R. Conte de' Gabrielli
59 8 B. C. con celerità	R. con gran celerità
59 11 B. C. fermaro la sede	R. fermarono la sedia
59 12 B. C. capo grosso	R. campo grosso
59 13 B. C. capitano generale	R. capitano
59 29 B. C. cittadini	R. cittadini del reggimento
59 33 B. C. popule mi	R. popule mee
59 35 B. C. essendo in questa speranza	R. essendo in questa speranza di
Dante di tornare	ritornare
61 2 B. C. del tempo suo	R. di quel tempo
61 28 B. C. io dirò	R. io dico
62 11 B. C. Aritmetica	R. aritmetica e geometria
62 33 B. C. ferno	R. feron
63 7 B. C. opera, cioè autore e com- ponitore di quello, che altri legge	R. opera. (<i>Omits</i> cioè . . . legge)
63 15 B. C. scrisse libri ed opere	R. scrisse libri e fece opere
63 16 B. C. fare opere	R. fare opere poetiche
64 13 B. C. al modo fratesco scolastico	R. al modo . . . e scolastico (<i>hiatus in</i> <i>-text</i>)
64 14 B. C. anni cento	R. circa anni cento
64 19 B. C. sentenze	R. scienze
64 24 B. C. cose moderne	R. storie moderne
64 29 B. C. prendesse	R. imprendesse
65 10 B. C. il quale è scritto	R. il qual libro è scritto
65 17 B. C. nel 1321	R. negli anni 1321

In the *Vita del Petrarca* the Boccacini version diverges much more frequently both from the Cinelli and the Redit texts than is the case in the *Vita di Dante*, but the coincidences with the Cinelli text preponderate.

PAGET TOYNBEE

FIVEWAYS, BURNHAM, BUCKS, ENGLAND
March, 1911

THIRTIETH

ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

DANTE SOCIETY

(CAMBRIDGE, MASS.)

1911

ACCOMPANYING PAPER

THE PHILOSOPHY OF DANTE

By Roger Theodore Lafferty

pp. I - XVIII
pp. 1 - 34
O. P.

BOSTON

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1913

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STATEMENT OF ACCOUNTS

(From May 17, 1910, to May 16, 1911)

Balance in the hands of the Treasurer, May			
17, 1910	\$729.16		
Membership fees till May 16, 1911	485.00		
Sales of Concordances	51.00		
Copyrights	<u>75.72</u>		
		\$1340.88	
Paid Messrs. Ginn and Company	\$151.31		
Paid the Treasurer of Harvard College	30.00		
Refunded from sales of the Fay Concordance	36.00		
Postage, printing, typewriting, etc.	43.07		
Balance on hand, May 16, 1911	<u>1080.50</u>		
		\$1340.88	

BY-LAWS

1. This Society shall be called the DANTE SOCIETY. Its object shall be the encouragement of the study of the Life and Works of Dante.

2. Any person desirous to become a member of this Society may do so by signifying his or her wish in writing to the Secretary, and by the payment of an annual fee of five dollars.

3. An Annual Meeting for the election of officers shall be held at Cambridge on the third Tuesday of May, of which due notice shall be given to the members by the Secretary.

4. Special meetings may be held at any time appointed by vote of the members at the Annual Meeting, or by call from the President and Secretary.

5. The officers shall be a President, a Vice President, a Secretary and Treasurer, and a Librarian, who, together with three members thereto chosen, shall form the Council of the Society. All these officers shall be chosen at the Annual Meeting, and their term of service shall be for one year, or until their successors are elected. Vacancies in the Council shall be filled for the remainder of the year by the Council.

6. The President, or, in his absence, the Vice President, or, in the absence of both, any member of the Council, shall preside at all meetings of the Society and of the Council.

7. The Secretary and Treasurer shall keep a record of the meetings of the Society and of the Council, shall collect and receive all dues, and keep accounts of the income and expenditure of the Society, shall give notice of meetings, and shall perform all other duties appropriate to his office.

8. The Council shall hold meetings at such times as it may appoint, shall determine on the use to be made of the income of

the Society, shall endeavor to promote the special objects of the Society in such ways as may seem most appropriate, and shall make an annual report of their proceedings, including a full statement of accounts, at each Annual Meeting. This report shall be made in print for distribution to the members.

9. No officer of the Society shall be competent to contract debts in the name of the Society, and no expenditure shall be made without a vote of the Council.

10. A majority of the Council shall form a quorum for the transaction of business.

11. Any person distinguished for his interest in the purposes of the Society, or who has rendered it valuable service, may be chosen an Honorary Member at any regular meeting of the Society, and shall be entitled to all its privileges without annual assessment.

12. The preceding rules may be changed at any time by unanimous vote of the Council.

THE DANTE PRIZE

The Society offers an annual prize of one hundred dollars for the best essay by a student in any department of Harvard University, or by a graduate of not more than three years' standing, on a subject drawn from the life or works of Dante. The competition is open to students and graduates of similar standing of any college or university in the United States.

For the year 1910-1911 the following subjects were proposed :

1. *A study of the vocabulary of Dante's Lyrics.*
2. *The classification of Dante's Miscellaneous Lyrics.*
3. *The influence of Boethius on the Vita Nuova and the Convito.*
4. *A discussion of the authorship of Il Fiore.*
5. *A study of Dante's influence upon English literature (or upon any single author or period).*
6. *The relation of Dante's theological doctrines to the present teachings of the Church of Rome.*
7. *The relation of modern scientific discovery to Dante's conception of the divine order of the universe.*
8. *The main reasons for the increase of interest in the Divina Commedia during the past fifty years.*
9. *Dante and Cecco d'Ascoli.*
10. *A study of the decline of Dante's influence in Italy in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.*
11. *Modern traits in Dante.*
12. *Dante in the anecdotic literature of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.*
13. *The influence of Guido Cavalcanti on Dante.*
14. *A criticism of Torraca's edition of the Divina Commedia.*

Essays must be deposited with the Dean of Harvard College, Cambridge, Mass., on or before the *first day of May*.

Essayists are at liberty to write on any one of the subjects which have been proposed in the years during which the Dante Prize has been offered, or to propose new subjects for the approval of the Council of the Society.

On the title-page must be written an assumed name and a statement of the writer's standing, i.e. whether he is a graduate or an undergraduate (and of what college or university); if he is an undergraduate, to what class he belongs, and to what department of the college or university. Under cover with the essay must be sent a sealed letter containing the true name and address of the writer, and superscribed with his assumed name.

The essays must be written upon letter paper, of good quality, of the quarto size, with a margin of not less than one inch at the top, at the bottom, and on each side, so that they may be bound up without injury to the writing. The sheets on which the essay is written must be securely stitched together.

The judges of the essays are a committee of the Dante Society.

In case the judges decide that no essay submitted to them deserves the full prize, they are at liberty to award one or two prizes of fifty dollars, or to award no prize.

The Dante Society has the privilege of retaining and depositing in the Dante Collection of the Harvard College Library any or all essays offered in competition for the Dante Prize, whether successful or not.

Since its establishment the Dante Prize (in full or in part) has been awarded to the following persons :

HEINRICH CONRAD BIERWIRTH 1887.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Obligations to the Schoolmen, especially to Thomas Aquinas*.

GEORGE RICE CARPENTER 1888.

For an essay entitled *The Interpretation and Reconciliation of the Different Accounts of his Experiences after the Death of Beatrice, given by Dante in the Vita Nuova and the Convito*.

CHARLES STERRETT LATHAM 1890.

For an essay entitled *A Translation into English of Dante's Letters, with Explanatory and Historical Comments*.

KENNETH MCKENZIE 1894.

For an essay entitled *The Rise of the Dolce Stil Nuovo*.

JEREMIAH DENIS MATTHIAS FORD 1895.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Influence upon Spanish Literature during the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries*.

ANNETTE FISKE 1897.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Obligations to Old French and Provençal Lyric Poetry*.

ARTHUR NEWTON PEASLEE 1900.

For an essay entitled *A Metrical Rhyming Translation of the Three Canzoni of the Convito*.

HENRY LATIMER SEAVER 1901.

For an essay entitled *A Translation of the Canzoni in the Convito*.

ALAIN CAMPBELL WHITE 1902.

The Latham Prize for an essay entitled *A Translation of the Quaestio de Aqua et Terra, and a Discussion of its Authenticity*.

ALPHONSO DE SALVIO 1902.

For an essay entitled *The Verse Endings in the Divina Commedia in which Dante has made "li vocaboli dire nelle sue rime altro che quello ch' erano appo gli altri dicitore usati di sprimere."*

FRITZ HAGENS 1903.

For an essay entitled *A Critical Comment of the De Vulgari Eloquentia*.

CHANDLER RATHFON POST 1906.

For an essay entitled *The Beginnings of the Influence of Dante in Castilian and Catalan Literature*.

ALEXANDER GUY HOLBORN SPIERS 1907.

For an essay entitled *Characteristics of the Vita Nuova*.

RALPH HAYWARD KENISTON 1909.

For an essay entitled *The Dante Tradition in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries*.

ROGER THEODORE LAFFERTY 1912.

For an essay entitled *The Philosophy of Dante*.

ANNUAL REPORT

The report now published, after much delay, is for the year 1911. It was the original plan of the Council to print as an accompanying paper the essay of Mr. Keniston which received the Dante Prize in 1909. But the author's absence in Europe for an unexpected length of time led to the postponement of this publication, which the Secretary now hopes to issue with the next report. In place of Mr. Keniston's essay, in the meantime, has been substituted Mr. Roger Theodore Lafferty's prize essay of 1912 on "The Philosophy of Dante."

The thirtieth annual meeting of the Society was held on May 16, 1911, at the residence of the Secretary, Longfellow Park, Cambridge. The regular business was transacted and the officers were all reëlected for the ensuing year. Mrs. William Carver Bates, because of her change of residence to New York, declined reëlection to the Council, and Mrs. Richard Henry Dana was chosen in her place.

Proof sheets of the Latin Concordance, which was then in the press, were exhibited by the editors as a report of progress. The volume has since been issued, and the chief literary undertaking of the Society, the publication of concordances to all of Dante's writings, has thus been successfully carried out. It has enlisted many members

in the preliminary work of collecting references, has received the generous financial support of two members in particular, and owes its satisfactory completion to the learning, judgment, and unstinted labor of the successive editors. The Society is not likely soon again to have an opportunity to render a service of equal importance to Dante scholarship. But now that the treasury will be relieved of the extra expenses incident to the publication of the concordances, it is the hope of the Council that the regular annual reports may be made more substantial and that many papers of value may be printed from year to year.

FRED NORRIS ROBINSON

Secretary

JUNE 28, 1913

THE PHILOSOPHY OF DANTE

ROGER THEODORE LAFFERTY

More than any other poet Dante was a philosopher. It is impossible to understand his work as a whole, and especially the *Divine Comedy*, unless it is studied as philosophy. While it is of supreme æsthetic interest, holding the attention of the world primarily by its striking imagery, its depth of feeling, and its matchless phrasing, its real significance, on which depends its final value, lies in its philosophy. It is indeed nothing but an expression of that philosophy. The whole literary work of Dante is a development of his philosophy. To be rightly understood and appreciated, therefore, Dante should be approached from the point of view of philosophical studies, rather than of literary scholarship. That scholarship, of course, is necessary to edit the writings, but is entirely inadequate to show the real meaning of the work. The preparation for a genuine study of Dante requires a knowledge of the history of thought, especially of that of the Middle Ages. For Dante gave poetic expression to the standard philosophy of his time, and this philosophy is thus the substance of his whole work.

As a philosopher, however, Dante was not himself an original creative thinker, but the poet of the philosophy which had been making for centuries. His mission was not to make, but to express. He brought together all the previous philosophies and welded them again — for the welding, too, had been done before him — into one great system. It is the poetic expression and the poetic, rather than the intellectual, value of the philosophical content that is so great.

Dante's philosophy was primarily one of intuition rather than concept, of imagination rather than reason. Thus it is from its very nature, without regard to its expression, poetic. The real value of such a philosophy it is the purpose of this essay to show. It is the only kind of philosophy that has any value, the human reason being so limited that the philosopher must eventually rely on his sense of the true rather than on syllogisms. And it is this sense of the true which makes Dante's work

so great also as poetry. Thus its universal appeal as poetry comes really from its greatness as philosophy. Dante's work is not philosophical poetry, but poetic philosophy. It is the nearest to an expression of what I should like to sketch as the philosophy for our own time.

It is in this light that the present study of Dante is made. We can examine through him the sources of our proposed philosophy. Then we can see these sources joined in him into our system. We can continue this system into our own notion of a philosophy by revising it according to modern science. From Dante himself we can take his method of philosophizing, and this is perhaps of most importance. In this way a real understanding of Dante can be had, and our purpose of developing a modern philosophy attained.

Thus Dante is a kind of source in substance and especially, as we shall see later, in method, and also a confirmation, of our proposed philosophy. Not only as such a source and support, but also as a direct expression, is Dante's work useful in an exposition of the kind of philosophy I have in mind. The *Divine Comedy* is the most perfect expression ever given to any system of philosophy; especially is it the finest expression ever given to a moral philosophy, or "*Lebensanschauung*." The particular view of life there expounded is so near to that which I am presenting here that the poem, after having served as a source, becomes of even greater value as the most inspiring expression in literature of our philosophy of life.

This seems to be the value of a study of Dante for contemporary thought and in general for contemporary culture. His contribution is to furnish the materials for an adequate view of life for the people of our time, to give his mighty support to such a philosophy, encouraging many who could accept it but are afraid, and above all to make this philosophy, when accepted, a source of immediate strength by giving it the most convincing and the most beautiful expression ever given to any ideal. Thus by a proper philosophical study of the great mediæval poet, we can make him of real and direct value to our own age. We can find what Dante may be to us.

Such, then, is the purpose and method of the study of Dante to be made in this essay. It is to build up a notion of philosophy around Dante. The study of the poet will be secondary; yet it will necessarily furnish a better understanding of him and his work than can be had in any other way.

I

Of all the philosophers of the Middle Ages, Dante is the most personal. His philosophy is so inwoven into his life as to be one with it. It seems to grow out of his own individual experience. It is the philosophy developed by a great spiritual nature thrown entirely upon the support of the spirit, by the failure of the outward life. Dante was primarily a spiritual man. He was interested in the higher intellectual and æsthetic values. He cared little for the "carnal pleasures." In the terms of a recent American poet, he was not "the Sport" but "the Scholar." Under any circumstances such a man will develop for himself a philosophy of a spiritual life. Hardship, misfortune, and failure in such of the worldly interests as he is obliged to pursue will make this philosophy more radical and consistent. So Dante's philosophy is indeed original, the outgrowth of his own individual temperament and experience.

Every man's philosophy, however, must get its detailed form from his environment. Temperament and experience give only color. Dante accordingly found the articulation of the philosophy of his nature in the philosophical systems and in the theology of his time. These were peculiarly adapted to his view of life. He added little to them, changed little. He absorbed the scholastic philosophy of the age; when he gives it off again it is very much the same, only beautified by the touch with Dante's soul, and humanized. As a philosopher Dante was hardly original. He was, however, a reconstructive thinker. He was not original only because he did not wish to be; he agreed with the thought of his time, but in an entirely independent way. He was like the present leaders of Hegelian thought. They are perhaps original geniuses, but their work does not show it. They agree too entirely with Hegel for that. But their agreement comes after a complete reconstruction of the Hegelian system. Slight changes may show great originality. The use of Hegelian philosophers is to readapt the system to the world which changes. So Dante took up the scholastic philosophy of his age and adapted it to his own life. His chief value lies in this direct fusion of an abstract superpersonal system of thought with a real human life. He is the great humanizer of mediæval philosophy.

As has just been said, Dante entirely built up the scholastic philosophy over again, going through the same steps its founders had gone through.

So his work is not merely a versification of St. Thomas Aquinas. But St. Thomas was his master, and gave Dante the sources and the method of using them. Then Dante constructed a system of his own, but, using the same materials, he of course got about the same result. For the completion of his system he took the Angelic Doctor himself as a source, and thus went a little beyond him. In a careful study of Dante's philosophy, therefore, his sources should be studied; and these should not be misunderstood. Dante knew Aristotle directly through Latin translations,¹ as well as indirectly through the paraphrases of Albertus Magnus and from quotations. Dr. Moore tells us that "the amount and variety of Dante's knowledge of the contents of the various works of Aristotle is nothing less than astonishing."² On Aristotle Dante built up his system, just as St. Thomas built up his scholasticism on the same philosopher. To a less degree Plato is a source for Dante's philosophy; but Plato's influence is chiefly indirect, through Aristotle himself. As a direct source he is decidedly secondary, as Dante's own words show; while Aristotle is "maestro di color che sanno,"³ Plato is called merely "uomo eccellentissimo."⁴ Plato was known to Dante at first hand only in the *Timæus*, which had been translated into Latin probably near the close of the fifth century.⁵ Beyond this Dante knew something more of Plato's works, through Aristotle, Cicero, and others perhaps.⁶ But in so far as Dante's system is the outgrowth of Aristotle, it is largely, indirectly, a development from Plato. Of other ancient philosophers the only ones who had any direct influence on Dante were Cicero, Boethius, and Seneca. "There is little or no evidence that Dante was acquainted with Cicero's oratorical works." Most of the quotations in Dante from Cicero are from the *De Officiis*, the *De Senectute*, the *De Amicitia*, and *De Finibus*.⁷ Here of course the knowledge is really direct in every sense, not even being through a translation. Boethius, Dr. Moore says, "is one of Dante's most favorite authors."⁸ Seneca also seems to have been well known to the poet. St. Augustine is a most important source of Dante's philosophy, but largely indirectly. St. Augustine's *City of God* is the great statement of official Catholic theology, of the regular notion of the physical

¹ Edward Moore, *Studies in Dante*, First Series, Oxford, 1896, p. 93.

² Ibid. p. 94.

³ *Inferno*, IV, 131.

⁴ *Convivio*, II, 5.

⁵ Moore, *Dante Studies*, First Series, p. 156.

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ Ibid. p. 258.

⁸ Ibid. p. 282.

constitution of the universe held by Christians in the Middle Ages. So in so far as this was a fundamental conception in Dante's mind, planted there by early instruction and constant environment, it excited a strong influence on his thought. Just as the scholastic philosophy had interpreted this conception, translating it into a mystic philosophy, so did Dante also. That Dante was directly acquainted with St. Augustine is known from various references to his works, and particularly from the eighth epistle deploring the neglect of the study of St. Augustine.¹ Then the Scholastics themselves, the later ones, are of course, as was said, of the utmost importance as shaping Dante's whole study. They are for him what Hegel is to the Hegelian. They are what he is reconstructing. Albertus Magnus he knew probably very well, but it was the great pupil of Albertus who was Dante's chief master, St. Thomas Aquinas. These, then, are the important sources of Dante's philosophy, and should be thoroughly known if one would thoroughly know Dante. For the present purpose it will be best to introduce the exposition of Dante's system by a brief review of the philosophy out of which it grew.

Scholasticism, the Scholasticism which Dante reconstructed from these sources, may be considered as a metaphysical development of St. Augustine's theology, by merging it with Aristotelian philosophy. In a general way, what, then, is St. Augustine's theology, what is the Aristotelian philosophy, and how do they merge? St. Augustine's theology is set forth in his *City of God*. There he gives the classic Catholic account of the whole of the universe. He begins by overthrowing pagan Rome. In the first five books of the treatise he says that the material misfortunes of Rome came to it not because of the Christian religion, but because of the recognition of the Roman gods, and that all the material good that came to Rome after the appearance of Christianity came to it because of Christianity. Then St. Augustine takes up the spiritual reasons for adherence to the gods, and says they are all false. Roman theology can never bring happiness to humanity in the future life. Only Christianity, through the mediation of Christ, can do that. Pagan Rome, representative of the kingdom of this world, being thus overthrown in these first five introductory books, the city of God is set up in its place. What follows, of course, is the important part of the work. "There is a city of God, whereof His inspired love makes us desire to be members," says

¹ Moore, *Studies in Dante*, First Series, p. 292.

St. Augustine in the first chapter of the tenth book. But now, he goes on to say, there are "two cities that in this world lie confusedly together." In the next world, he has just told us, they are distinct. How does it happen that there are two? God created first the angels. Some of these were good, some bad. The bad angels were so in having bad wills. Their wills opposed God, and they were accordingly separated from the good angels. Thus came about the two cities. Then God created the world and man. Man, as foreordained by God, sinned, thus giving the possibility to men, his descendants, of sharing in the two cities: some men would follow in sin and join the bad angels, others would join the good angels, or remain with God. Thus it is clear that the secular life in this world is a part of the city of the bad angels, and not in itself a separate community; and likewise that the spiritual life is one with the city of God, and not an independent existence. The life in this world is simply a part of that in the next. But the sin of the first man tainted his whole offspring and all his descendants with pride and self-love resulting from this evil use of free will, so that only those who are given the grace of God can come back to the city of God. This grace was given by God in Christ. Thus through Christ, the city of God grew up in this world, as well as the city of the bad spirits. Here is the identification of the city of God with the Church. The history of the human race is simply the development of these two cities. There have been three principal periods in this development, the period without law, the period with law, and the present period with grace or Christ, and the city of God organized in the Church. Here is the first Christian philosophy of history. The end of this period will be the end of this world, bringing to the denizens of the city of God eternal repose; and eternal damnation, or the second death, to the inhabitants of the earthly city. This end will be the Last Judgment. Death, or damnation, is eternal existence away from God. Thus the chief object of life is eternal repose in God. Such is the general argument. Incidentally are brought in the great mass of orthodox Christian doctrines, from that of the Trinity, fully discussed in the tenth chapter of the tenth book, which St. Augustine treats as do all Catholic theologians, as an incidental not central truth, to such doctrines as that of a woman's chastity depending on her will rather than on the physical act. But the description of the universe and its history seems to be the most important function of St. Augustine in mediæval philosophy. He gives a summary of the

factors. All succeeding mediæval philosophy, as well as his own, consists in the explanation of these factors.

Besides collecting the material, however, St. Augustine also himself contributed to the philosophy that was to build itself around this body of given beliefs. Side by side with the description of God and the angels, of the world and man, of Christ and the Last Judgment, is a metaphysical explanation of these things. St. Augustine's God is really not the person Jahveh of the primitive Hebrew religious mind, but is the metaphysical Being of the great Greeks. God is not a personal ruler of things, who changes his mind. He does not set out with a plan, and when he sees things going contrary step in and interfere to right them. This is the Hebrew conception. St. Augustine's God is Platonic. He is a great principle. He had complete foreknowledge of everything, including evil, before he made anything, and so arranged it that everything should work out just as it does. Thus prayer is answered, not by divine intervention, but by divine providence, which at the foundation of the world, foreseeing the prayer, arranged for its answer. Evil was introduced to produce a balance in things, which would bring about complete harmony. Thus in St. Augustine religion is already becoming metaphysics, and this is the essence of Scholasticism. The ultimate end of individual life is to be absorbed into the great Essence which is God. So the individual goes through several stages, each less material than the preceding, finally attaining to the complete life in God. This is mysticism. In so far as St. Augustine is a philosopher, in so far, that is, as he explains the world he describes, he is chiefly influenced by Plato and the Neoplatonists. In fact his philosophy consists simply of an application of the doctrines of Plato, which he knew in the main only indirectly through the Neoplatonists,¹ and of the doctrines of the Neoplatonists themselves, to the Christian and Hebrew conception of the universe. This conception, being reached independently, itself somewhat modifies the Platonic doctrines. This, then, is the chief value of St. Augustine's philosophy, that it introduces formally into Christian philosophy and theology the Platonic and the generally Greek elements already in the popular religion of the people.² He is the formal link between Platonism and Christianity.

¹ Maurice de Wulf, *History of Medieval Philosophy*, tr. by P. Coffey, London, 1909, p. 90.

² R. M. Johnston, *The Napoleonic Empire in Southern Italy*, London, 1904, vol. i, pp. 7-10.

This value, however, no matter how important, does not seem so great as the service he did in giving the first formal exposition of the data of Christian philosophy. His *City of God* is the great classic description of the Christian universe. The story of God creating a universe with angels, some of whom became bad and were thus separated from the rest, and then with a world and man, who sinned and fell and was later redeemed by the Grace of God through the sacrifice of Christ, is the core of all Christian philosophy. This philosophy simply explains the story of St. Augustine's *City of God*, eventually transforming it into pure metaphysics. Although "from the mediæval point of view, to philosophize means to explain the dogma, to deduce its consequences, and to demonstrate its truth,"¹ philosophy in the Middle Ages is nevertheless progressive, because it is not the dogma itself, but the metaphysical explanation of the dogma. The dogma came to mean more and more, until at last in Dante it becomes little less than, a concrete symbolism of the abstract metaphysical inner reality.

Così parlar conviensi al vostro ingegno
 Perocchè solo da sensato apprende
 Ciò che fa poscia d'intelletto degno.
 Per questo la Scrittura condisce
 A vostra facultate, e piedi e mano
 Attribuisce a Dio, ed altro intende.²

It should be clearly understood that Scholasticism was not merely a proof, according to reason, of dogma; it was an interpretation of the dogma. It studied dogma as philosophy now studies the world. Instead of studying the world at first hand, it studied it indirectly, seeing it through the eyes of dogma. But the scholastic philosophy itself was as free as any other philosophy in its study of its world, once seen thus, and as much subject to progress. It progressed along the lines of the ancient Greek philosophy, developing from the Platonism of St. Augustine to the Aristotelianism of St. Thomas Aquinas, and at last becoming changed, from the oriental material of which it was an interpretation, into absolute mysticism, in Dante. Here it is not necessary to take up each step of the progress from St. Augustine to St. Thomas Aquinas, through Scotus

¹ Weber, *History of Philosophy*, tr. by Frank Thilly, New York, 1908, pp. 201, 202.

² *Paradiso*, IV, 40-45.

Erigena, St. Anselm, Abélard, Hugo of St. Victor, Peter the Lombard, and others, ending with Albertus Magnus; instead, the origin of the explanation, the philosophy of Aristotle, will be sketched, just as the data for the explanation, in the theological system of St. Augustine, have been presented, and then it will be easy to understand the application of the one to the other which is seen fully worked out in St. Thomas Aquinas.

Plato's system was a hierarchy of the factors of life: "the ἀπειρον or groundwork of Matter at the bottom, above that, Number, or the *outer* shape of things, above that again, Ideas, or their *inner* natures, and at the top the Supreme Good itself. But . . . these factors have no natural relations or connexions among themselves, and each has a separate and independent existence of its own."¹ Aristotle begins with this hierarchy as his material, and first of all establishes the connections which Plato had not seen. The ideas do not exist somewhere in Heaven above, separate from the matter. They are with the matter. The matter is their support, their substratum. Plato's doctrine of the ideas being separate is fantastic and nowhere proved. What "participation" means is not clear.² Being has three inseparable parts, the idea, or form, the matter, and the motion. This is the kernel of Aristotle's whole philosophical system. The next great change which Aristotle makes in Plato's system is to change the conception of matter. It is not a dead, bad thing, having only the power of resistance to being, or to participation in the idea, which is being, which resistance is the cause of all evil, but it actively desires to embody the idea, to have the form stamped upon it; in this it is female, wanting completion in the male idea. We are now able to understand Aristotle's principle of causation, the explanation of how the three elements of being are brought together into being. There are four causes. "Causes are spoken of in four senses. In one of these we mean the substance, i.e. the essence (for the 'why' is reducible finally to the formula, and the ultimate 'why' is a cause and principle); in another the matter or substratum, in a third the source of the change, and in the fourth the cause opposed to this, the purpose and the good (for this is the end of all generation and change)."³ By the third, the source of the

¹ John Beattie Crozier, *History of Intellectual Development*, London, 1902, vol. i, p. 54.

² *The Works of Aristotle*, vol. viii; *Metaphysica*, tr. by Smith and Ross, Oxford, 1908, i, 6.

³ *Metaphysica*, i, 3.

change, Aristotle here means motion. These four causes are really only two, however. The final cause, the attractive principle which draws the motion toward it, the purpose toward which things work, really embraces the form and the motion. This principle of final causation should be thoroughly understood, for it leads to the greatest of his doctrines, the Unmoved Mover, and is of the greatest importance in its application to the Christian theology. It is the working out of Plato's doctrine expressed in the *Philebus*, of how particular parts of matter get impressed with just the forms they do receive. Reason, says Plato, reason in the mind of God chooses certain forms and applies them to matter. But Aristotle has the matter itself attracted by these ideas or purposes, which thus are purposes or ends of action, final causes, and which, by attracting, move. Thus these three causes become one, and the matter is left as the second. Matter as a cause may be considered as a kind of hierarchy. Each formed thing is the matter for the form above it; or, each lump of matter is the form for the matter below it, until you can finally go no further. Then you get down to elementary matter, which is pure matter and has no form whatever. The need of such a substratum for being is seen in the principle of recurrence. One idea follows another idea, not haphazard, but in a fixed order. That which causes this fixed order may be understood by Aristotle's matter. Being is something more than the ideas, and this something more is matter. It determines what forms or ideas must follow. You divide and divide and divide again and always get surfaces. This final indivisible surface is matter. Going up the scale in the other direction we find that each thing is made out of something lower which already has a form. Thus the table is made out of boards, which are made out of trees, and so on. Each form is the matter for the thing just above it. This is the immediate cause of one form being given to this particular matter instead of any other possible form. One thing grows out of another, evolves from it, is descended from it. We are thus led into the consideration of the other great cause, the final causation.

This has been seen to be one with form and motion. The form is the efficient cause also, for it introduces the motion. But each thing is seen to work toward an end, and the end is seen to be the same form which is the efficient cause, in that it introduces the motion. The purpose of a thing is the real cause of it. The purpose existing in the mind of the builder causes him to build. Thus the purpose, itself a form, draws

on the builder to make the thing. But closer examination shows this purpose, in being a form already existing in the mind of the builder, to have been brought about by efficient causation by a previous form. So we continue to go back until we get to a great first form, a reservoir of all possible forms.

The great first form thus reached is God. This form, being the first, and there must be a first, has been caused by no efficient cause, for that would be a form, and so this would not be the first form. This great form thus becomes an uncaused form, and so unmoved. But each other form in the chain, going backward on which we have reached this first one, is referred to it, caused by it through the process of efficient causation. But we have seen that each efficient cause, or form, was also a purpose, or object of endeavor which produced the succeeding thing. So getting back to this first form we find it a purpose. It is thus the purpose of all the succeeding things, but as it is the first thing there can be no purpose toward which it strives. Itself is its only possible purpose. But every other thing, every other purpose, comes back to it. So it is what everything is striving to be. As has already been shown, in having no efficient cause, it is not moved from without, and thus now, as we see, it has no purpose, and so is not moved from within. But as all else is striving after it as the ultimate purpose, it moves everything toward itself. It is the great Unmoved Mover.

The Unmoved Mover thus has all other possible forms within it. At the outset it is a divine plan of everything. It has foreknowledge at the beginning of how all must be, the first form working out from it, and producing another, and so on forever. It is divine Providence, or foreknowledge. Conceived of as God, it will be necessary to remember, it cannot be moved. Things are as they are. My wish that they be different must result from their being as they are, and so my wish must have been foreseen by the Unmoved Mover and caused by him, indirectly through the whole chain of forms from him to my wish. Therefore any change resulting from my wish will simply be a part of the original divine plan, as the naturally resulting form from the form which was my wish. So, too, this God can take no interest in our affairs except that contained in his original plan. We can influence him in no way. We are in every sense completely his creatures, forms resulting from, growing out of, evolving from, this first great cause. Things thus have

value, and are good. Each thing is as it ought to be, which amounts to saying that it is good. God may truly say, "I am that I am."

How close this comes to the God of St. Augustine, who made the world and planned all its future history when he made it, it is easy to see. Almost any thinker could apply Aristotle's metaphysics to St. Augustine's description of the origin and history of the universe, once it had occurred to him to do it. It is the idea of combining them which is great. Yet the two studies had been growing up parallel all through the Middle Ages, and so it is not especially original in St. Thomas that he brings mediæval thought to a culmination by formally combining these two elements. The point to be noted is, however, that the mediæval mind was saturated with Aristotle's metaphysics as it was with the Bible, and was prone to find the Bible an expression of that metaphysics as much as to find the central truth in the Bible. That is to say, it was quite as inclined to make the one the central truth as the other. As has already been pointed out, St. Augustine's God was no longer the superman Jahveh of the early Hebrew mind. He had become a great first principle. He is nearer to Plato's Highest Good, however, than to Aristotle's Unmoved Mover. In St. Augustine's God, as in Plato's Highest Good, we have an arbitrary selection, according to reason, or the principle of the better, of certain forms which make the world. In Aristotle's Unmoved Mover this freedom or arbitrary nature is not apparent. Probably both conceptions are very much the same when analyzed. But the Unmoved Mover moves, and thus creates, by attraction as a purpose. It is the great first form and first purpose, out of which all other forms and purposes naturally and necessarily grow. There is of course no more choice or freedom in the created world than in Plato's conception, but there is hardly present the notion of selection in the Unmoved Mover. He is eternal disinterest in all but himself. He simply is, lives and has his being. Out of this being go forth the forms which make the world. But they merely go; they are not selected and sent. The only thing the Unmoved Mover does about this creation is to observe it. Contemplation here as always is the only part of the Unmoved Mover. He sees how his nature works out: he watches evolution. He furnishes endless energy for it. But he does not reason out the world and make it as Plato's Highest Good does. Still farther is he removed in this way from St. Augustine's God, who is so intimately interested in the world and

plans it so carefully. St. Thomas Aquinas, however, tends toward the analysis, just spoken of, which brings Plato and Aristotle together.

For God indeed predestines the world to be as it is, according to St. Thomas, but is free only in making the world or in not making it;¹ once he makes it, he has no choice but to make it as he does, that is, according to reason. Thus we see Plato and Aristotle pretty well reconciled. God creates the world not because he has to do so, but because in his freedom he chooses to do so. This is the function which St. Thomas calls Absolute Will. But once creation begins, it cannot go otherwise than as it does. This necessity is in what St. Thomas terms Conditioned Will. God must use reason: he cannot create an unreasonable world. Thus we see a God freely choosing to create a world, and creating it according to his own reason, like Plato's Highest Good, but having no arbitrary freedom of choice, being, as it were, controlled by his own reason, which thus becomes Natural Law, and in this being the same as Aristotle's Unmoved Mover. Of course St. Thomas's God has the same great foreknowledge of all things which St. Augustine's and Aristotle's had, and is the same metaphysical being, rather than the early Hebrew Jahveh or the later Hebrew ethical conception of a Principle of Righteousness.² St. Thomas goes a little beyond Aristotle in this, however, because he makes this knowledge the all-important element in creation. For man, actions and objects come first, and then knowledge of them; but for God, the knowledge is first. In fact it is the knowledge which makes things. God's knowledge of things comes first, and the things result. Anything in the mind of God is true, or, what is the same thing, real, having objective reality. Thus God by thinking creates forms and impresses them on reality. More than this, however, God's "being is like knowing (*cum suum esse sit suum intelligere*)."³ God is thus actually and literally Truth. Thus we see the conception of St. Thomas to be, unwittingly, no doubt, a combination of the conceptions of Plato and Aristotle.

¹ The writers of histories of philosophy are at variance in their reading of St. Thomas more than of almost any other philosopher. They probably do not take the trouble to read the whole five volumes of the *Summa* in the Latin. The writers here have been compared with the original as much as possible, and selected accordingly. On this point, see Janet and Séailles, *History of the Problems of Philosophy*, tr. by Ada Monahan, London, 1902, vol. ii, p. 284.

² See Matthew Arnold's *Literature and Dogma*.

³ H. O. Taylor, *The Medieval Mind*, London, 1911, vol. ii, p. 453.

The modifications which St. Thomas makes of Aristotle, however, surely have no Platonic origin: they are always the result of combining the historical theological system of the Bible as expressed in St. Augustine with the Peripatetic metaphysics. St. Thomas discusses the relation of philosophy to faith, or to theology, at the very outset, and subordinates philosophy most unequivocally to theology.¹ Philosophy is to explain the factors given by theology as far as it can; beyond this point it can show that what is beyond the reason is not therefore contrary to reason, and so justify faith. Faith goes on and completes man's view of the universe. So, while Aristotle is to be used to explain the Bible, anything in Aristotle contrary to the Bible must be modified to agreement with it. This accounts for all the changes of Aristotle's conception.

These changes are principally in the conception of God. Yet the changes are insignificant in comparison to the agreement. St. Thomas proves God's existence by defining him as Truth. Then he can say "Truth exists," for to contradict this would be to give an example of truth, and would thus prove the statement. The subject is included in the predicate when we say "God exists." Truth, in the dictionary sense, is the correspondence of the idea with its object. Just here, it might be interesting to observe, is a very good disproof of Pragmatism, in so far as it gives verbal expression to its ideas. The philosophical or metaphysical principle of Truth is the Absolute Eternal God, unchanging, unconditioned, the Unmoved Mover. The true, or truth in the dictionary sense, is the necessary agreement of an idea, or form, with its object; this agreement in fact makes the object. Thus Pragmatism is right in all that it says of this kind of truth. But it errs, according to this system of St. Thomas, in denying the philosophical principle of Truth, which is God. The difference is analogous to that already explained between absolute and conditioned will. St. Thomas's doctrine of God's making things by thinking them, and making them because what he thinks is true, the things being made real simply because, and only in so far as, they are true, is surely an interesting mediæval expression of Pragmatism. But it is a much more properly proportioned expression than that which we get to-day. If God, then, is Truth, and by being Truth, by the simple state of knowing creates all things, he must be pure actuality. In this, of course, St. Thomas is quite in agreement with Aristotle. From this it is easy to understand that "He is absolutely

¹ De Wulf, *History of Medieval Philosophy*, p. 312.

simple.”¹ He therefore has no body. God wills himself, as has been said, and so in this way may be considered as absolute will. Here is an interesting analogy, to say the least, to Fichte. But as will be presently shown, there is a distinct difference, because in St. Thomas’s system God and being, or God and the world, are distinctly different. For Fichte the world is in the great first Will; it cannot get out. For St. Thomas, although the world is the object of the divine Will, is what it wills, yet it at once proceeds out of God into separate being. Resulting from his nature as Will, comes God’s love. Here is an important variation from Aristotle, the most important, in fact. Here is where one sublime idea comes into conflict with another. For who can deny the lofty sublimity of Aristotle’s conception of the Unmoved Mover, without the last sphere, beyond the *Primum Mobile*, who exists in eternal Truth, so beautiful that, entirely without his consciousness of it, the whole harmony of the spheres is moved and kept moving by attraction to him? Much of the nobility of this conception lies in the unconsciousness of the Unmoved Mover of what he is doing, in the idea of his being so true and good and beautiful that, without any intention or even consciousness of it, he moves everything to seek him. But this is in complete opposition to the Christian conception of God’s being Love. That conception cannot be denied to be of great sublimity and beauty also. “God so loved the world that he gave his only begotten Son.” This thought has appealed more to the world than perhaps any other in all the history of thought. The importance of this doctrine of God’s love for the world in the whole of Christian thought is too well known to need to be more than mentioned here. Surely, too, all who are as saturated with Christian dogma and Christian ways of thinking as any cultivated European or American must be, know and feel the sublimity of this conception that God is Love. How important a place the idea that God is so interested in the world and in his creatures that his very nature consists in this interest, which is love, has in Christian devotion is seen in any Christian devotional book, in none better than in this passage from the *Imitation of Christ*:

“I bless Thee, O Heavenly Father, Father of my Lord Jesus Christ, for that Thou hast vouchsafed to remember me a poor creature” . . .

“Ah, Lord God, Thou Holy Lover of my soul, when Thou comest into my heart, all that is within me shall rejoice.”²

¹ Janet and Séailles, *History of the Problems of Philosophy*, vol. ii, p. 282.

² Bk. iii, ch. 5.

The whole of Christian ethics is largely toned by this idea of divine unselfishness, which is indeed very different from the complete isolation and self-interest of Aristotle's Unmoved Mover. But the central and pivotal character of the doctrine that God is Love, in the Christian system of theology, left no possibility of hesitation for St. Thomas in modifying Aristotle's conception of the Unmoved Mover. "He does not, as Aristotle thought, lower Himself by knowing things inferior to Himself."¹ "As regards the question, whether God loves anything else besides Himself, it is the same question as whether he knows anything else besides Himself, and is solved in the same way."² So God remains the Unmoved Mover, but moves consciously by will and through love, which are the necessary working out of that truth which is his fundamental nature, and makes the world.

Although God must be the chief object of study for the human intellect, the first thing that the intellect can ever know is being.³ Being is divided into two classes, *entia* and *essentiae*. The *entia* are abstract ideas which deny existence in matter or real being. Blindness is a good example of such an *ens*. The *essentiae* are real beings, embodied forms. These essences are divided into pure essences and mixed essences. The pure essence is composed only of form and contains no matter. The mixed essences are those composed of form impressed on matter. There is but one pure essence, God. Matter is potentiality, possibility. It is the substratum of mixed essences. In matter St. Thomas brings in the distinction of the matter out of which something can be made, and the matter in which something has to exist, if it exist at all, and yet which is not its substance. The first is *materia ex qua*, or substance, the second is *materia in qua*, or accident. The first is potentiality only, pure matter, while the second already has some actuality. In matter St. Thomas finds the Aristotelian hierarchy, each formed object, or mixed essence, being the matter for the higher form.⁴ It must be remembered that mixed essences are, in so far as they are mixed, not reality or real Being. Only the pure essence, or God, is real Being, for He alone is nothing but actuality. Matter is not-being: in this St. Thomas again

¹ Janet and Séailles, *History of the Problems of Philosophy*, vol. ii, p. 283.

² Ibid. p. 284.

³ William Turner, *History of Philosophy*, Boston, 1903, p. 366.

⁴ For this exposition of Being, see Weber, *History of Philosophy*, pp. 242-245.

really agrees with Plato and not with Aristotle.¹ Matter is a hindrance to being: in so far as matter is in essence, the essence is not-being. Thus, of course, it was never "made," by God, or in any other way. It is the cause of evil, as resisting actuality or form. Thus evil is in the world, and yet not made by God. Matter could never have any existence apart from form, but is completely passive.² The union of form and matter, or *generatio*, is brought about by four causes, the four causes of Aristotle's system. The only real difference is that St. Thomas's doctrine of creation makes it necessary to deny eternity to matter and motion.³ God actively created the world because he willed to do so. Things do not move themselves toward God by an external motion in space. Motion originated in God's will. Except for this idea of the eternity of matter and motion, causation works in St. Thomas's system as it did in Aristotle's, and his general conception is thus Aristotle's slightly modified.

Out of this theodicy and metaphysics grow St. Thomas's notions of ethics and politics. The kernel of his ethics is that the chief end of man is happiness, which consists in the knowledge and love of God, in contemplation of God. Here, of course, he again repeats Aristotle. But the new doctrine of God's love adds an entirely new element to this contemplation, bringing it close to mysticism, as close as it could get in Scholasticism, until poetized by Dante. St. Thomas's ethics builds itself around this central notion of a Chief Good, or *Summum Bonum*. This complete happiness which consists in contemplating God can come only in the next world. In this world there is only a contingent happiness, which consists in a partial contemplation of God through reason and faith. But this vision of God was not stressed by St. Thomas: it remained for Dante to show how much of the divine contemplation man can reach in this world. St. Thomas thinks rather of a different kind of happiness on earth, coming from "health, external goods, and the society of friends."⁴ Morality on earth consists first in attaining as much of the *Summum Bonum* as possible, and then in rightly adapting ourselves to this imperfect state in this world, and living well in it. In politics St. Thomas works out this practical adaptation of the individual more at length. Society is the natural condition of men. Authority is simply

¹ See p. 12, above.

² Ibid. p. 324.

³ De Wulf, *History of Medieval Philosophy*, p. 319.

⁴ Turner, *History of Philosophy*, p. 376.

for the public welfare. The prince exists for the people. He is held in check by the Church, and by the right of revolution. The state should look after the moral welfare of its citizens, and so should provide schools and public charity. It is of importance to note, in connection with Dante, that St. Thomas does not prefer one form of government to any other. This shows Dante's independence of St. Thomas, and direct discipleship to Aristotle. It is not the form of the government, but its devotion to the welfare of its subjects that is important, according to St. Thomas.¹ It is to be noted also that St. Thomas subordinates the Emperor to the Pope as means to end, as matter to form.² St. Thomas's æsthetics are not very important. Croce sums them up thus:

A little differently Thomas of Aquin chose the three requisites of beauty, *integrity*, or perfection, *proper proportion*, and *clearness*; he distinguished, in the footsteps of Aristotle, the beautiful from the good, the former being that which pleases in contemplation alone (*pulcrum . . . id cuius ipsa apprehensio placet*); and he hints at beauty even in bad things, well imitated, applying the doctrine of imitation to the beauty of the second person of the Trinity ("in quantum est imago expressa Patris").³

All of the special doctrines grow directly out of St. Thomas's metaphysics and theology, however, and can be understood only in reference to this central doctrine. "In a word, God is the efficient, exemplary, and final cause of all things (q. 44). This formula embraces and expresses the whole of the theodicy of St. Thomas."⁴

Here, then, we have the historical development of that scholastic philosophy which Dante worked out all over again in his own mind, very much as each individual in embryo lives over the whole history of his race. We have the elements before us which make up Dante's intellectual environment. And in St. Thomas Aquinas we have the formal synthesis of these elements into one great system. Beginning with the Bible, St. Augustine gives it a European expression, Hellenizes it and Romanizes it. Thus transformed into Catholic theology, it is rationalized so far as may be, interpreted by the metaphysics of Aristotle, by

¹ For St. Thomas's politics, see Turner, *History of Philosophy*, pp. 375 ff.

² Weber, *History of Philosophy*, p. 245.

³ Benedetto Croce, *Estetica*, Milan, 1902, p. 179.

⁴ Janet and Séailles, *History of the Problems of Philosophy*, vol. ii, p. 286.

St. Thomas Aquinas. It remains for the greatest spirit and probably the greatest intellect of the whole movement, if not perhaps of the whole modern world, to humanize it and to eternalize it.

II

While Thomas Aquinas was essentially an intellectual man, and developed all his special doctrines out of his central metaphysics, Dante was primarily spiritual, and in his philosophy simply expressed his own experience. His philosophy begins in his own private and public life, and at the outset is only his personal reaction. His life was a very vivid one, and the inner life was violent. Profoundly earnest and conscientious, Dante meditated deeply on his experience. No one in literature shows such sensibility, such delicacy of feeling. Each thing meant more for him than for most men. Each movement in his life, from the most insignificant to the most important, took on a deep and subtle meaning in his meditation. But Dante's mind was synthetic. So he very early tried to bring all these particular meanings into one great meaning. What did all the steps of his life lead to? What was the whole movement? Thus we see Dante building up a philosophy, but a philosophy entirely of his own. It was a philosophy of the history of his own life. Living in a completely religious age, one in which the whole people were pervaded with a great philosophy,¹ he was sure to be drawn eventually in his introspection to the general study of the subject. So when he began actually to read philosophy he found in it the expression of his own meditations on his own soul, systematized and applied to the whole world. Then when misfortunes came he found in this philosophy the true comfort of his soul. Philosophy as personal introspective analysis had been his chief interest, or rather his guide. Strengthened by the formal philosophical writings of the great thinkers, it became indeed his spiritual mistress. Now when the outer world, for which he had cared anyway only in so far as he interpreted it in spiritual terms, began to crumble from before him, when his outer life began to become a failure, Dante turned entirely to the inner life of higher contemplation, which he

¹ The religion of the Middle Ages was Platonism in concrete and general expression, worked out as has been shown in the first part of this paper. And see George Santayana, *Three Philosophical Poets*, Cambridge, 1910, p. 77.

was pleased to call philosophy. Thus we see Dante's philosophy to be the expression of his own inner life.

This inner life of philosophy began to be recognized by Dante as such while he was still a very young man, and as he saw for the first time the possibilities of such a life, he called it the *Vita Nuova*, and wrote a book about it. In this book we have a wonderfully beautiful expression of Dante's natural spiritualizing tendency, which in its spontaneity is of course most obvious before circumstances had driven him to such a spiritual life. Here it is seen that Dante's inner life was not merely the result of the failure of external interests. He was naturally spiritual, naturally sought deep interpretations of each material object and action that he saw. So when at the age of nine he saw a little girl of eight whose beauty attracted him, he immediately began to spiritualize her, or, in modern phrase, idealize her. Everything about her came at last to have a deeper meaning. "Apparvemi vestita d'un nobilissimo colore umile ed onesto, sanguigno." And her general effect upon him was to stir "lo spirito della vita, lo quale dimora nella segretissima camera del core." For nine years Dante waited and idealized. He knew that in her there was a God stronger than he, who was come to rule over him. So she did rule over his young heart for nine years, very like Aristotle's Unmoved Mover, by her beauty alone, of the influence of which she was entirely unconscious. Here, however, it shows perhaps more to the advantage of the moved than of the mover, for such adoration meant a refinement of feeling such as few boys show from the age of nine to that of eighteen. His description of the second meeting shows how she had grown in his mind; and that she did not overthrow his ideal, but only added to it, shows the intensity of Dante's spirit. Now Dante had come to associate this girl, Beatrice, with all his inner musings. Each particular interpretation was somehow connected with her. So she became a golden chain binding all his thoughts together. She gave objective reality to that synthesis of the particular movements of his life into one great movement which we have already seen his constructive mind naturally seeking. So Beatrice came to be identical in Dante's mind with his own spiritual life. She came to be that highest contemplation which he felt to be the chief end of man. Dante had meanwhile become a poet. And it was the fashion for poets at this time to center all their verses about some fair lady. Each poet was to have his "mistress,"

or "lady," just as each knight had had. This mistress was sometimes an entirely literary conception. She was also often only a symbol for various abstract qualities, such as virtue, or wisdom, or beauty. So it was very natural that Dante should find in Beatrice the "lady" for his verses. She was really his lady, independently of his verses. As his chief interest, he naturally would have written about her anyway. She was, moreover, the symbol for Dante's whole spirituality. About this time Dante began to become acquainted with formal philosophy. As we have seen, it gave more definite form to that personal meditation which had been his philosophy. In fact it began to get the control of his mind completely, so as to drive out the precious thoughts of his own building. For a little while Beatrice, his own true individual contemplation, was forgotten. When she had become entirely spiritual,

Quando di carne a spirito era salita,¹

he began to neglect her for the more formal thought of others on the world in general. His soul was for a time not the principal subject of his thought; instead the world became the object of his study. But then he began that remaking of philosophy, which we have said was his great philosophical task. He began to mould the thought of the ages into the thought of his own soul, to make over the world's philosophy, making it a commentary on his own life. He used it, instead of being controlled by it. He used it simply to give shape and form to his meditations. Thus he came back to Beatrice. Now she had a larger meaning. She had become divine philosophy, or theology, his spiritual life systematized and harmonized with the universe. So as he closes the *Vita Nuova*, for it is no longer *nuova*, he promises to devote himself henceforward entirely to her. In one of the most exquisite pieces of prose style in all literature,² he says:

Mi fecero proporre di non dir più di questa benedetta, infino a tanto che io non potessi più degnamente trattare di lei. E di venire a ciò, io studio quanto posso, sì com' ella sa veracemente. Sicchè, se piacere sarà di Colui, per cui tutte le cose vivono, che la mia vita per alquanti anni duri, spero di dire di lei quello che mai non fu detto d'alcuna.³

¹ *Purgatory*, XXX, 127.

² If it is true that "Le style c'est l'homme," judging from the *Vita Nuova* it is easy to see what delicate sensibilities were Dante's. ³ *Vita Nuova*, XLIII.

From the point of view of the historian of philosophy, this completely personal nature of Dante's philosophy would be expressed by saying that he begins with ethics principally, and secondarily with politics and æsthetics, and from these develops a metaphysics. This is just the opposite to St. Thomas Aquinas's procedure, as we have seen. Dante begins with evolving philosophy as a guide to life. It is a "philosophy of life" that he is interested in. This is seen clearly in the *Convivio*. He has been searching for the *summum bonum*, for the chief end of life, for happiness. He has not been looking for the First Cause, nor for the real nature of being. The ethical end of man has been his subject. He has found this, in his own experience, to be that inner meditation or contemplation which was the essence of his spirituality. So when he comes upon the idea of a *summum bonum* in "the Philosopher," he eagerly studies the nature of it as there worked out. And it turns out to be quite the same thing, so he thinks, as he had himself discovered. The chief happiness of man, according to Aristotle was contemplation, and according to the revision of St. Thomas, contemplation of God. So Dante is led to metaphysics through ethics: the study of metaphysics leads to the contemplation which is the chief end of man, and this is the only reason for studying metaphysics,—an ethical reason. "Non si dee dicere vero Filosofo alcuno, che per alcuno *diletto* colla Sapienza in alcuna parte sia amico."¹ Wisdom for the love of wisdom is not proper: wisdom is for the ultimate attainment of the divine contemplation, the knowledge and love of God. Thus Dante's ethics becomes transformed into metaphysics, but it must be remembered that his metaphysics is, after all, a transformed ethics. So he writes the *Convivio* for the ethical purpose of making possible for the many as much as they can receive of the wisdom, or philosophy, which will give them some share in that divine contemplation which is the only true happiness of man.

Manifestamente adunque può vedere chi bene considera, che pochi rimangono quelli che all' abito da tutti desiderato possano pervenire, e innumerabili quasi sono gl' impediti, che di questo cibo da tutti sempre vivono affamati. Oh beati que' pochi che seggono a quella mensa ove il pane degli Angeli si mangia, e miseri quelli che colle pecore hanno comune cibo!²

Dante's very statement of philosophy, in the *Convivio*, shows this ethical purpose in his metaphysics.

¹ *Convivio*, III, II.

² *Ibid.* I, I.

Veramente l'uso del nostro animo è doppio, cioè *pratico* e *speculativo* (*pratico* è tanto, quanto *operativo*), l'uno e l'altro diletteosissimo; avvegnachè quello del *contemplare* sia più, siccome di sopra è narrato. Quello del *pratico* si è operare per noi virtuosamente, cioè onestamente, con Prudenzia, con Temperanza, con Fortezza e con Giustizia; quello dello *speculativo* si è, non operare per noi, ma considerare l'opere di Dio e della Natura. E questo uso e quell' altro è nostra Beatitudine e somma Felicità, siccome veder si può.¹

So Dante shows in the *Convivio* the use of knowledge, and the nature of it. The object of metaphysics is its practical use in the life of man.

Here is something very like Pragmatism in the core of Dante's philosophy. For is he not making Metaphysics of no value except as it is of practical use? Professor James seems to have scented Pragmatism in Scholasticism, for in it alone does he find a pragmatic value in the metaphysical consideration of substance.² Yet, when one stops to think, it seems so incongruous as to be little short of amusing, to call Dante a pragmatist. The trouble here lies in confusing the notion of truth as a principle with that of truth as a word describing agreement between an object and an idea, as was remarked before in the consideration of St. Thomas's conception of God as absolute Truth.³ True, Dante says that the study of metaphysics is good only in so far as it serves a purpose, has value in so far, indeed, as it "works." But what does he mean by value? When does it work? Its purpose, Dante says, is to lead us to everlasting contemplation of eternal Truth. Metaphysics is true, in the dictionary sense,⁴ when it is an instrument by which we may attain to the principle of Truth which is God. It is true when its description of the universe and of God corresponds, and can be proved to correspond, with the unchanging reality which is there forever without regard to man or man's knowledge, whether it be successful or a failure. God is the absolute truth, or reality, without the realm of discourse, to which all descriptions of it in that world of discourse must apply or be false. Within the realm of discourse things are true or false pragmatically; but when these terms become descriptions of the reality without they are true or false absolutely. Such would be the answer of Dante to Pragmatism.

¹ *Convivio*, IV, 22.

² William James, *Pragmatism*, New York, 1907, pp. 87-89.

³ P. 13, above.

⁴ A phrase of Professor Santayana's.

In the *Divine Comedy* the whole system, sketched and presented in crumbs for the masses who could not, through inability, *dentro* and *di fuori* partake of the whole loaf, is built up into the greatest expression ever given to human thought. Here the practical life is shown, and the speculative. The practical is indeed very incidental. It is chiefly the expression of the metaphysics by which the divine contemplation is possible. And it is thus itself a contemplation of the Eternal as far as Dante could partake of that contemplation. Man can only partially attain in this life to this blessedness, which differs in different men.¹

Questo Angelo . . . dice . . . a qualunque va cercando la Beatitudine nella vita attiva che non è qui . . . la *Beatitudine* procederà . . . in *Galilea*, cioè nella *Speculazione*. . . . E così appare che la nostra Beatitudine, ch' è questa Felicità di cui si parla, prima trovare potemo *imperfetta* nella *vita attiva*, cioè nelle operazioni delle *morali* virtù, e poi *quasi perfetta* nelle operazioni delle *intellettuali*. Le quali due operazioni sono vie spedite e dirittissime a menare alla somma Beatitudine, la quale qui non si puote avere, come appare per quello che detto è.²

So this contemplation, found imperfectly in the practical life, almost perfectly in the life of speculation, can only be completely attained in the next life. But Dante went as far into Galilee as man has ever gone in this world, and his *Divine Comedy* takes us as far into the Heavenly Vision as any book ever written. Directly, however, the book is an allegorical poem, leading us to the supreme blessedness by being itself an expression of that philosophy or wisdom by which alone man can attain to the knowledge of God, which is the supreme blessedness of man. Hell is man entirely without wisdom or philosophy, and so entirely separated from the contemplation of God.³ Purgatory is the study of philosophy, which leads to the happiness that consists in contemplation of God. Paradise is the contemplation of God, which is the eternal happiness of man. This is the kernel of the philosophical meaning of the poem. Everything in it can easily enough be worked out with this as a basis of interpretation. Thus the particular punishments are the particular active unhappinesses which result from violating the cardinal virtues of the practical use of the mind, Prudence, Temperance, Fortitude, and Justice. We suffer practical inconveniences in violating these

¹ P. 23, above.² *Convivio*, IV, 22.³ P. 19, above.

virtues, and we also cut ourselves off from the study of that philosophy which alone leads to real happiness. When Dante comes to the *Paradiso* he enters into a direct contemplation of God as well as into a metaphysical consideration of Him necessary for this contemplation. In the last canto comes the vision of God, which has been called the "sublimest conception of the human imagination." The philosophy in the *Divine Comedy* must not be understood to be merely metaphysics, for it covers the whole field of scholastic philosophy, including physics and cosmogony as well as metaphysics and theology.

This philosophy in its details has already been shown, in its elements. As has been said, Dante studied the sources of Scholasticism, and then put them together again. In what, then, lies his value? What advance did he make in Scholasticism? His chief value probably lies in the way he put these new elements together again, and in the poetic expression he gave the system when thus built up anew. Besides this, he really made an important advance, as we shall see presently.

In taking the elements of Scholasticism and moulding them again into a system, he really moulded them, not into a super-personal system, but into something human. He had already a philosophy of life when he began the study of formal philosophy. This was the philosophy of inner meditation which the *Vita Nuova*¹ shows him to have had from childhood. It was a biographical philosophy, an introspection. When he began the study of Aristotle and the others, he at first became a little untrue to his real self and was a true Scholastic. But very soon he became himself again, and thenceforward this Scholasticism became in his hands simply an interpretation of a human soul, his own. He made Scholasticism personal. It should be remembered always, however, that Scholasticism was never a merely intellectual pastime, without any vital relation to life. Such expressions as "the dry bones of his formal Scholasticism"² are very much at fault. The Middle Ages were aglow with an interest, and a very profoundly philosophical interest, in life; for their religion was carried into every fibre of every man's life, controlling his every thought and deed, and this religion was simply the philosophy of Plato and

¹ Of course when the *Vita Nuova* was written, Dante had studied formal philosophy. It is the early spiritual biography therein that is here meant.

² Charles Eliot Norton, in an article on Dante in the *Library of the World's Best Literature*.

Aristotle given a popular expression. Scholasticism was the expression of this philosophy for the learned, for whom the popular expression was not adequate. It was for "color che sanno," not for the layman. Nor were the great thinkers of the Middle Ages mainly taken up, as is quite generally thought, with considerations of "how many devils can dance on the point of a needle." This is one of those piquant and striking phrases which people remember, and which, when saying something not true, thus do great harm. Scholasticism was an attempt to formulate the religious expression of Platonism into a philosophy which would satisfy the intellectual people of the time, who thought as earnestly and honestly, and quite as profoundly and exactly, as those of the eighteenth century, or of our own time. Yet the formal Scholasticism was a formal thing. It was a great description of the Universe and God. In the system the soul of man had its place, and out of the interest in this soul goes the impulse to make the system. But although this gave the impulse, it was not itself the chief feature of the system. Dante makes the soul the chief interest, and makes the scholastic philosophy simply an interpretation of the soul. Thus he humanizes it. He applies the system directly to life. He gives a philosophy of life based on this philosophy of the cosmos. In this way he holds much the same relation to Scholasticism as Rudolph Eucken, in starting the present interest in a "philosophy of life" holds to Kantian or Cartesian metaphysics. In this way Dante starts an interest in life which is to find full expression in the Renaissance, of which Dante is in this sense, as in so many others, the precursor. The *Divine Comedy* works out the religious philosophy of Aquinas in detailed application to human life in all its phases. In this way Dante is the great humanizer of Scholasticism.

The chief way in which Dante humanized Scholasticism, however, was the way he humanized everything he touched, that is, by making it beautiful. This transforming æstheticism was kindred to his spirituality. Just as he spiritualized everything he thought about, so he beautified it. The *Vita Nuova* is a splendid example, not only in the beauty of its style, but in the poetic way in which each material object is treated. Around all a sacred mystic light glows. Everything is etherealized, touched by a heavenly beauty. So in philosophy, he was always the poet. Accordingly, when he gave expression to the Scholasticism he had transformed by making it a running commentary on human experience, he poetized it as no

philosophy has ever been poetized before or since. While this scholastic philosophy was an intellectual expression for thoughtful men of the popular religion, Dante brings it also to the layman. He does not lower its dignity, however, in the process, but raises it. As modern people are almost all laymen with respect to scholastic philosophy, we see that Dante did a greater service than would at first appear. For while the layman of his own time hardly needed the intellectual expression of the religion which had been popularized for him, the modern man does need this intellectual expression, for he has not the mediæval popular religion. Thus Dante really eternalized the whole thought of the Middle Ages. He made it intelligible to other peoples. The great value of Dante, therefore, in Scholasticism is that he is its poet.

It was said that Dante made also an advance in the system itself. This is in what we may term his Modernism. In fact Scholasticism itself was a kind of Modernism. We have said that it was an attempt to give intellectual expression to the religion of the masses for the intellectual elect. It was an attempt to rationalize religion, to give it a higher synthesis, a deeper and truer meaning than that understood by the vulgar. We have shown that God was for Scholasticism no longer what He had been for the early Jews, and actually was in the Middle Ages for the people, the superman Jahveh. He was instead a principle, and religion was nothing less than a concrete expression, and also a popularization, of this principle and the other metaphysical principles which made up the Universe. In Dante this Modernism reaches its climax. It must not be supposed that for St. Thomas Aquinas religion was merely a symbol or an allegory. It was literally true, but metaphysically true. It was true just as a table or any other concrete object is true for an absolute idealist. It really exists, but is something different than it appears to common sense. In fact all philosophy so interprets the world, as something different than it appears to common sense. This, then, and not allegory, was the Modernism that Scholasticism most certainly was. Dante carries this out to the utmost extreme. He even comes dangerously near to the allegorical interpretation of religion. The passage already quoted,¹ where he says the Bible attributes arms and legs to God and means something else, making a concession to the ignorance of the race, is an example of his metaphysical Modernism. A better example may be

¹ P. 8, above.

found in the *Convivio*, IV, 22. Here he explains the story of the three Marys who went to the tomb of Jesus, but found Him gone, an Angel in his place telling them that He was gone, and bidding them tell the disciples and Peter to go into Galilee, where they should find Him. The three Marys are the Epicureans, the Stoics, and the Peripatetics. The tomb is this life, the Savior is Beatitude. The Angel is "questa nostra Mobilità che da Dio viene, come detto è, che nella nostra ragione parla, e dice a ciascuna di queste sette, cioè a qualunque va cercando la Beatitudine nella vita attiva, che non è qui." Peter is those who are gone astray. Galilee is Speculation. Only God he does not interpret, but leaves as simply God. This might be the allegorical meaning, but the allegorical meaning for Dante was *quid credas*. At any rate it is evident throughout Dante's works that he is thoroughly a Modernist in the sense that we have just shown all Scholastics to be Modernists. He saw a deeper reality under every appearance. Such passages as those just quoted carry this principle much farther than anything in St. Thomas. Moreover in Dante we come closer to Mysticism than in previous Scholasticism. In true Mysticism there must be a complete absorption by the great first principle, or God, of each particular individual. In Scholasticism, it will be remembered, God and the world were kept always quite distinct. Being proceeded out of God, but it never quite came back. The Unmoved Mover, both of Aristotle and of St. Thomas, was always beyond the empyrean. Man's final blessedness consisted in contemplating Him, but always from without, never being absorbed into Him. So Scholasticism and Mysticism were really distinct, and in an important way. Pragmatically, if we may use the term here, there was little difference. Both would mean the same kind of life in general. Yet even pragmatically there was a slight distinction. One's own soul was more highly evolved in Scholasticism than in Mysticism. But in Dante we come very close to Mysticism. Probably he would have refused to subscribe to a clear statement of Mysticism; he would have insisted, with St. Thomas, that God and man are forever separate. But his actual conception, perhaps due more to imagination than to reason, was almost, if not quite, Mysticism. We might call him the link between pure Scholasticism and the Mysticism that many of the best souls of the Church thoroughly believed in, such as St. Catherine of Siena. In the *Paradiso* God is Light, and the whole of Paradise is glorified by this Light. The

contemplation which is eternal blessedness is very nearly identified by Dante with existence in this Light. It really is existence in the Light, and to that extent is Mysticism; but the soul does not become one with the Light—it retains its individuality. This approach to Mysticism is, together with the Modernism just mentioned, to which it is closely related, both claiming that "things are not what they seem," and that the particular is not of importance, but only the universal—the real advance in Scholasticism made by Dante.

In considering this Modernism, it is interesting to observe that very soon after Dante, men came to feel universally the interest in life and in its real underlying meaning which he had brought to the layman. Accordingly they began to pay much less attention to the religious expression of the truth, but to seek directly the truth itself. They did not care for a truth that merely works, but wanted a direct communication with that description of eternal reality which really corresponds to it. So it is possible that here in Dante's expression of the Modernism of Scholasticism he was again a precursor of the Renaissance.

So we see in Dante the great æsthetic humanizing of mediæval philosophy. Essentially a philosopher by nature, he also spiritualized and poetized everything he thought. Out of the beauty of his own soul and the ugliness of the material world outside, he made an individual personal philosophy which he harmonized with the formal philosophy of his time. He emphasized the deeper spiritual meaning of the formal philosophy, showing more directly its application to life. He emphasized also the deeper metaphysical meaning of religion, bringing it thus prominently before every one, while it had been known only to the elect. In this humanistic tendency he foreshadowed the great humanistic movement so soon to burst upon the world. He gave imaginative expression, at least, to the tendency toward Mysticism in Scholasticism. In both of these ways he probably brought Scholasticism to a close while he preserved it to the world forever. In the Humanism he brought men to drop the religious element entirely out of their thought, as the thing of secondary importance, and in the Mysticism he brought those who were not thinkers but Saints to give up the scholastic view of mere contemplation and to substitute a pure Mysticism. At any rate Scholasticism has never been the controlling influence over the mind of Europe since Dante. Yet he preserved the soul of Scholasticism, the profound truth

in it, for all generations to come, *in saecula saeculorum*. Combining the meditation of his own spirit with the philosophy of the spirit of the Middle Ages, he built up a majestic cathedral of holy thought, which soars forever toward Almighty God.

III

It is Dante's Humanism that means most to the world to-day. This is chiefly, no doubt, for most people, the Humanism from his literary appeal. The *Divine Comedy* studied purely as a literary work, that is, as an imaginative poem, and taken only in its literal sense is a great, according to some critics, the greatest, work in literature. But it has been our purpose here to discover what there is in Dante's philosophy as such which may be of value to us to-day. So by his Humanism we here mean the Humanism in his philosophy. In the first place, the study of Dante's life shows the true nature of philosophy. Philosophy should be no mere formal exercise, nor intellectual amusement. "Non si dee dicere vero Filosofo alcuno, che per alcuno *diletto* colla Sapienza in alcuna parte sia amico." The study of philosophy as a sort of mental gymnastics, much akin to chess, is more or less popular to-day. A certain disciple of Mr. McTaggart tells the writer that this is the great beauty of Mr. McTaggart's philosophy: it is such a wonderful system. It has the beauty of a locomotive engine, where all the parts are so ingeniously arranged. To this extent, indeed, Dante would be a very good pragmatist; he would insist on the value of the engine being entirely in its ability to run and do work, and not at all in its ingenious arrangement of parts for its own sake. Neither should philosophy be for the love of speculation, however interesting and beautiful the pure whiteness of speculation. We remember that Galilee, or Speculation, was only valuable because Christ, or Beatitude, was there. The place was not valuable in itself, but only as containing Christ. So speculation, a knowledge of science for the love of science, is not good. Especially Dante objects to the idea of an interest in special sciences, instead of the whole synthesis of sciences which is philosophy. But even the study of philosophy for its own sake is not the proper use of the intellect. Philosophy must be intimately connected with the spiritual life of the philosopher. The first lesson we learn, from the *Vita Nuova*, is that philosophy should be a very real thing for each of us. It should arise

from within, and grow out of our own experience. At the outset it should express a longing of the soul. It should be a very real and deep desire to understand the inner significance of our lives, and the ultimate purpose. Then when we have a meditation of our own, we can begin the profitable study of formal philosophy. It will give definite shape to our meditations. We shall not accept some other man's philosophy on purely formal grounds, but shall find in some great system the formal expression of our own. Thus Dante shows us that philosophy is a real and vital human thing. In the second place, Dante leads us through such a philosophy to the higher contemplation which should be the object of life, and for the attainment of which the philosophy, great as it is in itself, should only be an instrument. This contemplation for Dante was the contemplation, he said, of God. There is every evidence that, whatever he may have articulately thought about it, he really derived much of his happiness from contemplation of himself, and through himself of the universal spirit of man. God, moreover, was Truth, an eternal principle. It is contrary to our modern feeling to desire rapt contemplation of abstract Truth as our chief end of life. We are more inclined to find our contemplation very largely "nella vita attiva." By making this change we can get a new Humanism from Dante which may be of the utmost value to all of us to-day. We can admit that perhaps the chief happiness can only come in the next world, but that the happiness to be attained in this world, "Beatitudine *imperfetta*" though it be, is very important. And we may also put more emphasis on the "Beatitudine *imperfetta*" of the "vita attiva," as well as the "Beatitudine *quasi perfetta*" in the intellectual faculties. We may also find happiness in contemplation of the world and all its parts as well as in God. Thus we get a new Humanism, beginning with Dante as a source, which will be close to the modern ideas of culture and of the "strenuous life." Dante better than any one else can teach us to cultivate these two ideas. This is our great need to-day. We have culture in the study and a soulless business in the world. We need to make contemplation the contemplation of life. We need to make this world with all its aspirations and struggles, its hopes and fears, loves and hates, humor and sorrow, the subject of our contemplation. Thus the chief object of philosophy may be "human interest." This may be combined with an interest in God, if the individual feels a vital human interest in God. The principal idea, however, is to make our philosophy

our whole culture, for this is what Dante meant by philosophy, a study of life. The whole world becomes the great all-inclusive novel, and our philosophy or culture is the knowledge of it. Life becomes a reading of this great book. But we shall not merely sit in our study and observe. Our reading of this book will consist in taking a strenuous part in life itself. Our pleasure in this will be our interest in life. So too the business man, the vigorous man of action, will not work mechanically from a love of motion. He will infuse reason into his life of action, and thus give it meaning. He will find in his work a synthetic interest, akin to the interest in reading a book. His life will come to be the life of contemplation, just as much as that of the philosopher, only perhaps a more vivid contemplation, being closer to the subject of contemplation, the world and human life. So perhaps Mr. Roosevelt is more philosophic than some of his academic critics think, when he says that philosophy in the sense of closet-ethics is of no value; it is of value only when it is applied to life. The chief philosophic value, then, of Dante for us may be the intimate relation he established between philosophy and the human life.

"Sans doute, l'homme pourrait vivre sans se donner d'autre fin que la vie, mais il ne le veut pas," says M. Boutroux in his recent book on Science and Religion. In this book M. Boutroux shows that there are aspirations in the human soul for something divine, for religion. Here we come close to two things in Dante, his Modernism and his contemplation of God. As has been said, Dante takes religion in a very metaphysical sense. He gives us the idea of a religion which is a very different thing from the usual conception of mediæval religion. When he thus left faith in the truest sense, as "the substance of things hoped for, the essence of things not seen," to see clearly the nature of all things, to have a vision of God, he necessarily went back in reality to philosophy. His religion became a kind of Modernism. He shows us, then, how we may believe in religion, interpreted by the best knowledge of our day. Religion will not be a symbolism, but the outward appearance of an inner reality. The best philosophy known to Dante, by which to interpret religion, was Aristotle. To-day our science and speculation have gone considerably ahead of Aristotle. Why not take religion, as Dante did, as the outward appearance of an inner reality which is a little better expressed in our present science and speculation than it was in Aristotle? The element of faith comes in, in knowing that our present knowledge is only a stage toward the truth, as was Aristotle's, but that

the religion may well be the true outer appearance of an inner reality which philosophy is making better known by slow progress. The use of the religion is, that in it we have the true and unchanging appearance. And it is still necessary for those who cannot penetrate philosophical understanding. It has, besides the æsthetic value claimed for it, a sociological value. Such a value, to be the comfort for those who cannot directly understand the inner truth, but can feel it, is beautifully shown in the last two chapters of Loti's *Matelot* where the mother, after failure to find solace for the loss of her adored son, is comforted and restored by a sudden new faith in Christ and the Virgin. Precious myths! cries Loti, and ends the book sorrowing that we, the elect, cannot still cling to them ourselves. We do hold to faith in the æsthetic sense we have outlined. The use of philosophy is to get ultimately, in some future day, the inner reality, the deeper meaning. For we know the appearance to be only appearance. One way to realize such a Modernism is that shown by M. Boutroux:

Il serait peu conforme aux faits de dire que l'idée de Dieu est actuellement délaissée par la raison humaine. La raison s'est éloignée, de plus en plus, de l'idée d'une divinité extérieure et matérielle, qui ne serait qu'une doublure ou un agrandissement des êtres naturels. Mais, par contre, elle s'attache de plus en plus à des notions qui, rassemblées, définies, approfondies, répondent très certainement à ce que la conscience religieuse adore sous le nom de Dieu.

Par analogie avec la vie, nous pouvons concevoir un être où tout ce qui est positif, tout ce qui est une forme possible d'existence et de perfection s'unirait et subsisterait, un être qui serait un et multiple, non comme un tout matériel, fait d'éléments juxtaposés, mais comme l'infini, continu et mouvant, d'une conscience, d'une personne. Si cette idée, qui dépasse l'expérience, ne s'impose pas mécaniquement à l'esprit, elle n'en est pas moins très conforme à la raison humaine, comme en témoignent, et les traditions des peuples, et les réflexions des penseurs. L'être que représente cette idée est celui que les religions appellent Dieu.

Perhaps a little closer to the actual metaphysical Modernism of Dante would be the conception of M. Bergson. For him God is a center of motion from which all being proceeds. In *L'Évolution Créatrice* he says, on p. 270:

Si, partout, c'est la même espèce d'action qui s'accomplit, soit qu'elle se défasse soit qu'elle tente de se refaire, j'exprime simplement cette similitude probable quand je parle d'un centre d'où les mondes jailliraient comme les fusées d'un immense bouquet, pourvu toutefois que je ne donne pas ce centre

pour une *chose*, mais pour une *continuité* de jaillissement. Dieu, ainsi défini, n'a rien de tout fait; il est vie incessante, action, liberté. La création, ainsi conçue, n'est pas un mystère . . .

Here we have very much the same idea of an Unmoved Mover that Dante conceived as God, only worked out according to the modern sciences. Such an interpretation of religion by a modern evolutionary philosophy is suggested by Fogazzaro's *Il Santo*. It is just now taking a good bit of attention, both of Catholics and other Christians who have intellectual conscience, and scientists and philosophers who have religious feeling.

The beauty of that mediæval vision of God may thus still have value for us. We too may find a higher and truer happiness in the development of our humanism into a contemplation of the divine. But the divine will have to be defined in terms of morality, art, and some such metaphysics as that of M. Bergson.

The true philosophy must, however, be an open one which will lead us on forever through the infinite. Of closed metaphysical systems we must be very cautious. The world, one always feels, in coming out of these circumscribing systems, the world is greater than that. "Dieu," says M. Bergson, "ainsi défini, n'a rien de tout fait; il est vie incessante, action, liberté." Philosophy is

le vrai prolongement de la science, pourvu qu'on entende par ce dernier mot un ensemble de vérités constatées ou démontrées, et non pas une certaine scholastique nouvelle qui a poussé pendant la seconde moitié du dix-neuvième siècle autour de la physique de Galilée comme l'ancienne autour d'Aristote.

Such a philosophy can lead us to a contemplation of God, much like that which Dante calls "somma Beatitudine." We see here, too, a new kind of Faith, yet about the same as Dante's, for Dante's was to complete what reason could not do. So where the report of science at present has not reached the philosopher can get by a kind of faith of intuition. His intuition can give him a notion of the whole. Thus directly through philosophy we can attain to a kind of faith which will lead us to where, "beyond the horizon of speculation, floats, in the passionless splendor of the empyrean, the city of our God."

Bid, then, the tender light of faith to shine,
By which alone the mortal heart is led
Unto the thinking of the thought divine.

THIRTY-FIRST

ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

DANTE SOCIETY

(CAMBRIDGE, MASS.)

1912

ACCOMPANYING PAPER

THE DANTE TRADITION IN THE FOURTEENTH
AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES
By Ralph Hayward Keniston

BOSTON
GINN AND COMPANY
(FOR THE DANTE SOCIETY)

1915

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STATEMENT OF ACCOUNTS

(From May 16, 1911, to May 21, 1912)

Balance in the hands of the Treasurer, May		
16, 1911	\$1080.50	
Membership fees till May 21, 1912	439.96	
Copyrights, etc.	<u>38.02</u>	
		\$1558.48
Paid Messrs. Ginn and Company	\$342.12	
Paid the Treasurer of Harvard College (for		
Library)	50.00	
Paid the Treasurer of Harvard College (for		
Dante Prize)	100.00	
Refunded from sales of the Fay Concordance .	54.00	
Printing, postage, etc.	21.24	
Balance on hand, May 21, 1912	<u>991.12</u>	
		\$1558.48

BY-LAWS



1. This Society shall be called the DANTE SOCIETY. Its object shall be the encouragement of the study of the Life and Works of Dante.

2. Any person desirous to become a member of this Society may do so by signifying his or her wish in writing to the Secretary, and by the payment of an annual fee of five dollars.

3. An Annual Meeting for the election of officers shall be held at Cambridge on the third Tuesday of May, of which due notice shall be given to the members by the Secretary.

4. Special meetings may be held at any time appointed by vote of the members at the Annual Meeting, or by call from the President and Secretary.

5. The officers shall be a President, a Vice President, a Secretary and Treasurer, and a Librarian, who, together with three members thereto chosen, shall form the Council of the Society. All these officers shall be chosen at the Annual Meeting, and their term of service shall be for one year, or until their successors are elected. Vacancies in the Council shall be filled for the remainder of the year by the Council.

6. The President, or, in his absence, the Vice President, or, in the absence of both, any member of the Council, shall preside at all meetings of the Society and of the Council.

7. The Secretary and Treasurer shall keep a record of the meetings of the Society and of the Council, shall collect and receive all dues, and keep accounts of the income and expenditure of the Society, shall give notice of meetings, and shall perform all other duties appropriate to his office.

8. The Council shall hold meetings at such times as it may appoint, shall determine on the use to be made of the income of

the Society, shall endeavor to promote the special objects of the Society in such ways as may seem most appropriate, and shall make an annual report of their proceedings, including a full statement of accounts, at each Annual Meeting. This report shall be made in print for distribution to the members.

9. No officer of the Society shall be competent to contract debts in the name of the Society, and no expenditure shall be made without a vote of the Council.

10. A majority of the Council shall form a quorum for the transaction of business.

11. Any person distinguished for his interest in the purposes of the Society, or who has rendered it valuable service, may be chosen an Honorary Member at any regular meeting of the Society, and shall be entitled to all its privileges without annual assessment.

12. The preceding rules may be changed at any time by unanimous vote of the Council.

THE DANTE PRIZE

The Society offers an annual prize of one hundred dollars for the best essay by a student in any department of Harvard University, or by a graduate of not more than three years' standing, on a subject drawn from the life or works of Dante. The competition is open to students and graduates of similar standing of any college or university in the United States.

For the year 1911-1912 the following subjects were proposed :

1. *A study of the vocabulary of Dante's Lyrics.*
2. *The classification of Dante's Miscellaneous Lyrics.*
3. *The influence of Boethius on the Vita Nuova and the Convito.*
4. *A discussion of the authorship of Il Fiore.*
5. *A study of Dante's influence upon English literature (or upon any single author or period).*
6. *The relation of Dante's theological doctrines to the present teachings of the Church of Rome.*
7. *The relation of modern scientific discovery to Dante's conception of the divine order of the universe.*
8. *The main reasons for the increase of interest in the Divina Commedia during the past fifty years.*
9. *Dante and Cecco d'Ascoli.*
10. *A study of the decline of Dante's influence in Italy in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.*
11. *Modern traits in Dante.*
12. *Dante in the anecdotic literature of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.*
13. *The influence of Guido Cavalcanti on Dante.*
14. *A criticism of Torraca's edition of the Divina Commedia.*

Essays must be deposited with the Dean of Harvard College, Cambridge, Mass., on or before the first day of May.

Essayists are at liberty to write on any one of the subjects which have been proposed in the years during which the Dante Prize has been offered, or to propose new subjects for the approval of the Council of the Society.

On the title-page must be written an assumed name and a statement of the writer's standing, i.e. whether he is a graduate or an undergraduate (and of what college or university); if he is an undergraduate, to what class he belongs, and to what department of the college or university. Under cover with the essay must be sent a sealed letter containing the true name and address of the writer, and superscribed with his assumed name.

The essays must be written upon letter paper, of good quality, of the quarto size, with a margin of not less than one inch at the top, at the bottom, and on each side, so that they may be bound up without injury to the writing. The sheets on which the essay is written must be securely stitched together.

The judges of the essays are a committee of the Dante Society.

In case the judges decide that no essay submitted to them deserves the full prize, they are at liberty to award one or two prizes of fifty dollars, or to award no prize.

The Dante Society has the privilege of retaining and depositing in the Dante Collection of the Harvard College Library any or all essays offered in competition for the Dante Prize, whether successful or not.

Since its establishment the Dante Prize (in full or in part) has been awarded to the following persons:

HEINRICH CONRAD BIERWIRTH 1887.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Obligations to the Schoolmen, especially to Thomas Aquinas*.

GEORGE RICE CARPENTER 1888.

For an essay entitled *The Interpretation and Reconciliation of the Different Accounts of his Experiences after the Death of Beatrice, given by Dante in the Vita Nuova and the Convito*.

CHARLES STERRETT LATHAM 1890.

For an essay entitled *A Translation into English of Dante's Letters, with Explanatory and Historical Comments*.

KENNETH MCKENZIE 1894.

For an essay entitled *The Rise of the Dolce Stil Nuovo*.

JEREMIAH DENIS MATTHIAS FORD 1895.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Influence upon Spanish Literature during the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries*.

ANNETTE FISKE 1897.

For an essay entitled *Dante's Obligations to Old French and Provençal Lyric Poetry*.

ARTHUR NEWTON PEASLEE 1900.

For an essay entitled *A Metrical Rhyming Translation of the Three Canzoni of the Convito*.

HENRY LATIMER SEAVER 1901.

For an essay entitled *A Translation of the Canzoni in the Convito*.

ALAIN CAMPBELL WHITE 1902.

The Latham Prize for an essay entitled *A Translation of the Quaestio de Aqua et Terra, and a Discussion of its Authenticity*.

ALPHONSO DE SALVIO 1902.

For an essay entitled *The Verse Endings in the Divina Commedia in which Dante has made "li vocaboli dire nelle sue rime altro che quello ch' erano appo gli altri dicitori usati di sprimere."*

FRITZ HAGENS 1903.

For an essay entitled *A Critical Comment of the De Vulgari Eloquentia*.

CHANDLER RATHFON POST 1906.

For an essay entitled *The Beginnings of the Influence of Dante in Castilian and Catalan Literature*.

ALEXANDER GUY HOLBORN SPIERS 1907.

For an essay entitled *Characteristics of the Vita Nuova*.

RALPH HAYWARD KENISTON 1909.

For an essay entitled *The Dante Tradition in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries*.

ROGER THEODORE LAFFERTY 1912.

For an essay entitled *The Philosophy of Dante*.

ANNUAL REPORT

The thirty-first annual meeting of the Society was held at the house of the President, 11 Francis Avenue, Cambridge, on May twenty-first, 1912. The usual routine business was transacted. The officers of the previous year were reëlected, and Mrs. John Chipman Gray was chosen a member of the Council in place of Mrs. Richard Henry Dana, who retired because of her intended absence in Europe.

It was announced that three essays had been submitted for the Dante prize, the successful competitor being Mr. Roger Theodore Lafferty. His paper, on "The Philosophy of Dante," was published with the thirtieth annual report. The essay by Dr. Ralph Hayward Keniston, which accompanies the present report, was awarded the prize in 1909.

It has long seemed to the Council desirable to encourage more general competition for the prize, and members of the Society are urged to aid in bringing this about. Although excellent essays, such as the Society has been glad to publish, have been offered from time to time, the number submitted in a single year is always very small, and only rarely is one received from a student of any college except Harvard. Arrangements have recently been made for the announcement of the prize in

the catalogues or other local publications of a number of institutions, and the Secretary has received in consequence many letters of inquiry from different parts of the country. If members will now also help to make known the terms of the competition, the chief purpose of the prize, which is to stimulate the study of Dante in American colleges, may hereafter be more adequately fulfilled.

FRED NORRIS ROBINSON

Secretary

NOVEMBER 20, 1914

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THE DANTE TRADITION IN THE
FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH
CENTURIES

By RALPH HAYWARD KENISTON

PREFACE

This work does not propose to make any great contribution to Dante scholarship ; it is an attempt to present to English readers the traditional ideas about Dante in the first two centuries after his death. Two Italian compilers, Papanti and Solerti, have made the task easy — indeed without their work the study would have been hardly possible for an American without access to early manuscripts. Where I have found suitable translations available, I have not scrupled to employ them ; to Wicksteed in particular I am indebted. For the most part, I have been unable to supplement the studies of Papanti and of Köhler on the sources ; in a few cases I believe I am the first to call attention to possible parallels. Such of the work as concerns the justification for traditional beliefs as found in Dante's works is my own, although even here Dr. Moore has touched on a part of the field. The value of the essay, if any it has, is for those whose love for Dante the poet inspires them with interest in Dante the man.

NEW YORK, April 22, 1909

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THE DANTE TRADITION IN THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTORY

Around the names of those who have stood out in the life of their day and generation, there seems to linger even in death something of that magnetic power which once made them leaders of men, — a power that may sometimes associate with their memories words or deeds little consonant with the character of the real man but that also preserves many a distinctive trait. Such a group of tales and anecdotes — some resting on a basis of fact, others attracted from varied sources to the commanding personality — soon develops into a tradition, widespread and insistent. This tradition may be oral or literary; it may be both, finding its origin in either form. If it is purely oral, it may eventually so expand with each new telling as to become a legend. For some centuries since, hardy spirits have been putting forward this accretive theory to explain the Christ "legend," and in the mediæval conception of Virgil we have an excellent example of such a growth.¹ Often the oral tradition persists in spite of known facts — just as to-day so many scandals enjoy an oral existence quite beyond their deserts. Occasionally a tradition is limited to literature — if we still call this tradition — handed on from plagiarist to plagiarist. But by far the most frequent condition is to find the literary and the oral going hand in hand.

There can be no universal touchstone to test the nature of oral tradition; we can argue only from analogy or from the phases which find their way into literature. But we may draw certain general conclusions

¹ Cf. D. Comparetti, *Virgilio nel Medio Evo*, 2d ed. Florence, 1896.

regarding its development. It is evident that when a given story is once fixed in writing its growth is stunted, unless there chances to hit upon it some imitator whose chief literary device is hyperbole. The Middle Ages were untrammelled by easily accessible books; the fancy had room for free play. Then every tradition assumed legendary details. But the invention of the printing press toward the middle of the fifteenth century marked the end of all far-reaching, popular legend. Circumspect traditions continued to persist, and here and there in some out-of-the-way community a local legend survived, a prey for the modern student of folklore. For the old, fantastic superstitions, the Renaissance, with its spread of learning and disillusionment among all classes, had little sympathy, and the legendary movement ceased.

For several decades it has been customary to speak of the various tales and anecdotes which gather about the name of Dante as forming a "Dante legend."¹ But such a description is hardly more accurate than to call the collection of homely jests attached to Lincoln's name a legend. With one or two exceptions—and these are of palpably literary origin—all of the stories recorded of Dante are lacking in the exaggerated, fantastic details which we consider characteristic of the legend. Bartoli goes so far as to say that all of the examples which we possess are probably of literary origin,² and there is some reason to believe that this is true. But this literary tradition was of considerable importance during the first two centuries after Dante's death, including not merely anecdotes of his deeds and sayings, but also the greater part of the current ideas with regard to the poet's temperament and personality as recorded in the early biographers;³ and we cannot be wrong in supposing that, for the most part, the literary conception tallies with that in the popular mind.

If we consider the wealth of stories which have been connected during the past century with two such figures as Napoleon and Abraham Lincoln, we shall find that in general they portray the man as he is known to us from more personal and trustworthy sources. Though the actual event recorded as a chapter in their experience may have been an incident

¹ Prof. A. D'Ancona was the first, I believe, to use the expression, in his edition of the *Novelle* of Giovanni Sercambi, Bologna, 1871, p. 283.

² Cf. *Vita di D. A.*, p. 335.

³ V. Imbriani in his paper *Sulla rubrica dantesca nel Villani* (in *Studi danteschi*, Florence, 1891, p. 1), speaking of the early biographers, says, "ben presto s'accorge quasi tutto quel che se ne racconta esser favola o romanzo."

in the life of Julius Cæsar or Speaker Cannon, it is always one which is in perfect keeping with the true personality of its new hero. I have heard a score of anecdotes of P. T. Barnum, the great showman, — to choose an example from a different level, — and in every one there have stood out prominently two characteristics, — geniality and business shrewdness, qualities which would seem to be warranted by his biography. The rôle changes, but the personality of the actor is discernible in all. If, then, we find in our own time such close conformity of tradition and of fact, it is not unreasonable to believe that the anecdotes and comments of biographers which go to make up the tradition of Dante contain a picture which is not far removed from the truth.

A collection of the anecdotes which concern Dante is in itself an interesting work, for many of the tales are amusing, less have some artistic merit; but the chief value of such a marshaling of reproofs valiant and bits of gossip is the reflection they afford us of the real, human personality, of the man of flesh and blood.¹ The sources² of these oft-repeated tales are various; one group seems to rest on actual events in the poet's life; another is manifestly suggested by statements in his writings and can be considered as little more than a sprightly exercise of the tale-teller's imagination; the last, and by far the largest, class is a collection of stories, anecdotes, and retorts, some of them derived from classical authors, others drawn from the popular novelistic matter, and all related as illustrative of some personal trait. Needless to say, we are not concerned with proving whether or no some event reported by a *novelliere* occurred in Dante's life, and quite as little must we exercise our ingenuity to demonstrate that one man did or did not write a given story. It is enough that this story was related as a part of Dante's experience, that these words were placed in his mouth, for this is evidence that some individual believed that they were in keeping with his nature. If now we find that there is any considerable congruity among the tales, we have a further indication that this belief was general and amounted to a tradition. The purpose of this study is to discover, so far as we may, what was the traditional conception of Dante's character, bearing in mind that in this conception we have at least an adumbration of Dante the man.

¹ Cf. I. Del Lungo's review of Papanti in *Archivio storico italiano, Serie terza*, XVIII, 519 ff.

² In general, see the works of Papanti and Köhler cited in the Bibliography.

So far as possible, also, we may verify our conclusions from his own work, for in spite of his mediæval doctrine of self-concealment, the modern, the human, in Dante breaks away from the bonds of convention and reveals the individual.

In the investigation of the traditional ideas respecting Dante, I have limited myself to the period between his death and the close of the fifteenth century. During these years, Dante was the dominant figure of Italian literature, and his life and work was a theme not merely of literary discussion but of popular interest. Besides numerous lives or biographical notices¹ — there are more than a score before 1500 — the *novellieri*, with the exception of Fiorentino and Massucio Salernitano, all contribute some anecdote or other of his experience, and the earliest commentators² on the *Divina Commedia* occasionally add some gossiping bit of information. But the sixteenth century saw a decline of interest in Dante and his work; in the field of the tale, the few new stories which are told reflect only too plainly the vulgar or obscene tastes of their decadent authors; Dante has ceased to be a personality. With this foreword, we may proceed to investigate what sort of man was the Dante who survived in the tradition of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

¹ Cf. Solerti, *Le vite di Dante, Petrarca e Boccaccio*, Milan, n. d.

² Cf. Kraus, *Dante*, etc., pp. 502-522.

CHAPTER II

DANTE AMONG HIS FELLOWS

I. SOME GLIMPSES OF DANTE

Of Dante's contemporaries only one has left us any account of his life; under the rubric "Del poeta Dante e come morì," Giovanni Villani inserted in his *Cronica*¹ a brief outline of the life and works of his fellow-citizen. It is needless to remark that in his bald, impersonal narrative, covering two scanty pages, there is little suggestive of Dante the man, although the account closes with a word on his character and his claim to fame. The following generation, however, presents a number of writers, who, if too late to have come in personal contact with Dante, must at least have had friends, perhaps parents or relatives, who had once been his intimates or acquaintances. Such was Boccaccio.

Three works dealing with Dante have come down to us under Boccaccio's name: the *Vita*, the *Compendio*, and the *Comento sopra la Divina Commedia*. The question of the authenticity of the *Compendio* need not concern us here;² at least it is a document of the Trecento containing observations on the life of Dante and as such bears its part in determining the traditional ideas concerning the poet. For convenience we shall speak of it as Boccaccio's work. Scattered through these works we find numerous anecdotes, touching on details of Dante's career, which may not be authentic but which certainly are not improbable, for, as Dr. Moore has observed,³ that which is, in the strict logical sense, "not proved" is not therefore "disproved." About most of them there is a quaint flavor of gossip — the sort which some good dame perhaps

"Favoleggiava con la sua famiglia."

¹ Ed. G. Dragomanni, Florence, 1844-1845, Bk. IX, § 136 (II, 233-235); also in Solerti, pp. 3-4.

² For discussion, see the introductions of Macri-Leone and of Rostagno to their respective editions of the *Vita* and the *Compendio*, and Dr. Moore's *Dante and his Early Biographers*, pp. 4-57.

³ *Dante and his Early Biographers*, p. 169.

To this class belongs his account of Dante's first meeting with Beatrice. In a passage which in grace of style and charm of atmosphere transports us to the cloudless days of the *Decameron*, we catch our first glimpse of the boy whose life was to be so rife with storm.¹

"In that season wherein the sweetness of heaven reclothes the earth with its adornments, making her all to smile with diversity of flowers mingled amongst green leaves, it was the custom both of men and women in our city, each in his district, to hold festival, gathering together in their several companies; wherefore it chanced that Folco Portinari, amongst the rest, a man in those days much honoured of the citizens, had gathered his neighbors round about, to feast them in his house on the first day of May. Now amongst them was that Alighieri already spoken of; and thither (even as little lads are wont to go about with their fathers, especially to places of festivity) Dante, whose ninth year was not yet ended, had accompanied him. And here, mingling with the others of his age, — for in the festal house were many of them, boys and girls, — the first tables being served, he abandoned himself with the rest to children's sports, so far as the compass of his small years would extend. There was amongst the throng of young ones a little daughter of the aforesaid Folco, whose name was Bice (though he himself always called her by the original of the name, to wit, Beatrice), whose age was some eight years; right gracious after her childish fashion, and full gentle and winning in her ways, and of manners and speech far more sedate and modest than her small age required; and besides this the features of her face full delicate, most excellently disposed, and replete not only with beauty but with such purity and winsomeness, that she was held of many to be a kind of little angel. She then, such as I am painting her, or may be far more beauteous yet, appeared before the eyes of our Dante, at this festival, not I suppose for the first time, but for the first time with power to enamour him; and he, child as he still was, received her fair visage into his heart with such affection, that, from that day forth, never, so long as he lived, was he severed therefrom."

The picture is typical of the method of the prince of story-tellers; a sentence, a word starts his fertile fancy in a whirl of imagery. And so

¹ *Vita*, ed. Macri-Leone, pp. 13-15. The translation is Wicksteed's, of which I have availed myself without exception for the lives of Boccaccio and Bruni.

we recognize the theme of this story in the second chapter of the *Vita Nuova* (II, 1-25).¹

"Nine times already since my birth had the heaven of light returned to the selfsame point almost, as concerns its own revolution, when first the glorious Lady of my mind was made manifest to mine eyes; even she who was called Beatrice by many who knew not wherefore. She had already been in this life for so long as that, within her time, the starry heaven had moved toward the Eastern quarter one of the twelve parts of a degree; so that she appeared to me at the beginning of her ninth year almost, and I saw her almost at the end of my ninth year. Her dress, on that day, was of a most noble color, a subdued and goodly crimson, girdled and adorned in such sort as best suited with her very tender age. At that moment, I say most truly that the spirit of life, which hath its dwelling in the secretest chamber of the heart, began to tremble so violently that the least pulses of my body shook therewith; and in trembling it said these words: *Ecce deus fortior me, qui veniens dominabitur mihi.*"

Thus under Boccaccio's hand the vague, almost mysterious account of Dante becomes a concrete episode, bright with local color. Elsewhere² he tells us that he received the information regarding the family of Beatrice from a "trustworthy person who was an acquaintance of hers and closely connected with her by ties of blood" (*fededeigna persona, la quale la conobbe e fu per consanguinità strettissima a lei*)—a statement which inclines us to look less skeptically on the details of this version. To be sure, Lionardo Bruni says³ with some bitterness, in telling of Dante's prowess at Campaldino, "I could wish that our Boccaccio had made mention of this valor rather than his falling in love at nine years old and such like trifles, which he tells of so great a man," and Giovanni Mario Filelfo, that curious juggler of facts and fancies, goes so far as to say in his *Vita Dantis*,⁴ "I believe that that Beatrice, whom Dante is supposed to have loved, was about as much a woman as was Pandora" (*Sed ego aeque Beatricem quam amasse fingitur Dantes mulierem numquam fuisse opinor ac fuit Pandora*); but it is sometimes tempting to have

¹ Rossetti's translation, in *Dante and his Circle*.

² *Comento*, ed. Milanese, I, 224 (on *Inf.* II, 57).

³ *Vita di Dante*, in Solerti, p. 99.

⁴ In Solerti, p. 163.

faith in the substance of things not seen, particularly when it does not strain our sense of reason.

Another anecdote of Dante's acquaintance with Beatrice, marked by the same word-of-mouth quality, is recorded by the author of the *Codex Cassinese*¹ (ca. 1385) in his second gloss on the passage which relates how Dante swooned at the close of Francesca's beautiful story of Paolo's first kiss (*Inf.* V, 142).

"Observe that this incident of his falling actually happened to the author while he was in love with Beatrice. For when he had come to a banquet at which Beatrice was present and she had appeared before him as he mounted the stairs, he fell, half dead, as it were, and being carried to a couch, lay for some time unconscious."

Although Dante has not mentioned this experience in the story of his love, one naturally recalls the wedding-feast, at which he is so overcome at the sight of Beatrice that the ladies, observing his confusion, mock him,² and which may have celebrated the marriage of Beatrice to Simone de' Bardi.³

The Commentary of Benvenuto da Imola, written between 1380 and 1390, and easily the most valuable of the early commentaries in historical details, contains several brief sketches from Dante's private life which are at once interesting and suggestive.

"Ita n'è Beatrice in l'alto cielo" and Dante has entered the life of civic activity.

"In the church of San Giovanni Battista in Florence, around the baptismal font there are some cylindrical wells in the marble, just large enough to hold a man, and when the priests are baptizing children, they stand in these wells, about up to their waist, the more easily to perform this office on days when there is a throng, — for large as Florence is, it has only one baptistery, even as Bologna. . . . (Now it so happened) that one day some boys were playing around the font, as they are wont to do, and one of them, who was more reckless than the rest, got into one of these holes and became so firmly wedged in (*et ita et taliter implicavit et involvit membra sua*) that he could not be dragged out by any manner or means. And so the boys, seeing that they could not help him, began to cry out and in a few moments a great throng assembled. To make a

¹ Ed. by the Badia di Monte Cassino, 1865, p. 46. Cf. Kraus, *Dante*, p. 11.

² *Vita Nuova*, XIV, lines 15-63 (pp. 212-213).

³ Cf. Boccaccio, *Comento*, I, 224 ff.

long story short, no one could do a thing to succor the poor boy whose life was in danger; when of a sudden Dante, who was then one of the Priors in office, appeared on the scene, and seeing the boy, cried out, 'What ails ye, fools? An ax!' As soon as an ax was fetched, Dante seized it in his own hands and started to pound the marble, which broke readily enough. And thus the boy, resurrected from the dead, as it were, escaped without hurt."¹

The incident is introduced as a comment on Dante's words,

"Non mi parean meno ampi ne maggiori
Che quei che son nel mio bel San Giovanni
Fatti per loco de' battezzatori;
L'un delli quali, ancor non è molt' anni,
Rupp'io per un che dentro vi annegava:
E questo sia suggel ch'ogni uomo sganni,"

(*Inf.* XIX, 16-21)

apparently a rebuke to the worshipers of the letter rather than the spirit, whose murmurings, centuries before, had been silenced by the words, "Is it lawful on the Sabbath to do good, or to do harm? to save a life or to destroy it?" It is not easy to explain the inconsistency between Benvenuto's expression "taliter implicavit et involvit membra sua" and Dante's "annegava." Professor Norton interprets the latter as meaning "was stifling," but this is an extension of meaning which is hardly warranted by usage, however well it accords with Benvenuto's story. Another possible solution, suggested by Professor Grandgent,² is that Dante broke open a passage from one of the wells into the main baptismal font in which the boy was drowning. Whatever may have been the exact details of the event, the story reveals Dante in a character which it is easy to overlook in our study of Dante the writer. Dante was a man of action, quick to choose the path and quick to carry out his plans.³ Perhaps it was this characteristic which secured for him in April, 1301, his appointment as superintendent in charge of the repairs on the *Via Sancti Proculi*.⁴

¹ *Comentum super Dantis Aldigherii Comediam*, ed. J. P. Lacaïta, Florence, 1887, II, 35-36 (on *Inf.* XIX, 16); also in Papanti, pp. 34-35.

² I take this opportunity of expressing my indebtedness to Professor Grandgent for his constant inspiration and assistance.

³ Cf. Landino, *Vita e costumi di Dante* (in Solerti, p. 188): "Fu di non minore ingegno et consiglio nell'amministrazione e governo civile che nelle dottrine."

⁴ Cf. G. R. Carpenter, *Documents concerning Dante's Public Life*. (Dante Society Reports, X, 39-45, Cambridge, Mass., 1891-1892.)

Benvenuto also tells¹ an anecdote of the loss and rediscovery of the first seven cantos of the *Inferno*, which is patently derived from Boccaccio. The latter has several versions of the affair, and as he is the originator I will quote from him, giving the *Comento* form, as the fullest.²

Having observed in his comment on "Io dico seguitando" (*Inf.* VIII, 1) that this is the first time the phrase has been employed, he continues:

"You must know that Dante had a sister who was married to one of our citizens, named Leon Poggi. She bore him several sons, the oldest of whom was named Andrea, a youth whose features were remarkably like Dante's, as well as his figure, for he walked in a somewhat stooping fashion, as Dante is said to have done. He was a simple fellow but good-hearted, and in his conversation and manners was orderly and praiseworthy. Having become an intimate friend of his, I have often heard him speak of Dante's manners and habits. Among other things which deeply impressed my memory was a story which he related to me one day while we were talking together. He said that Dante, who was a member of the party of Messer Vieri de' Cerchi and in fact was one of its leaders, learning that Messer Vieri had departed from Florence with many of his followers, himself departed and betook himself to Verona. After his departure, through the efforts of the opposing party, Messer Vieri and all the others who had departed, particularly the leaders, were condemned as rebels, in property and person. Among these was Dante. And straightway the mob rushed into the houses of the condemned and plundered them. However, fearing this, Dante's wife, Madonna Gemma, pursuant to the advice of some friends and relatives, had had some chests containing valuables — including Dante's writings — carried out of the house and put in a safe place. Now the most prominent of the partisans, not content with having robbed the houses, in a number of cases seized the estates of the condemned. And so was seized Dante's.

"Five years later when the city became more settled than it had been when Dante was condemned, he says that people began to demand, under one title or another, their rights to the property which had once belonged to the rebels; and they were heard. Therefore, the lady was

¹ *Comentum*, ed. cit., I, 274 ff.

² *Comento*, II, 129 ff.; also in Papanti, pp. 11 ff. Cf. the versions in the *Vita*, pp. 65-67, and the *Compendio*, pp. 54-56.

advised to make a request for the property of Dante at least under the rights of her dowry. While she was making preparations to carry this out, she found that she had need of certain instruments and papers which were in the chests, that she had rescued in the excitement of the turmoil and since that time had never removed from the place where she had deposited them. Wherefore, Andrea told me, she had sent for him, as Dante's nephew, and intrusting to him the keys of the chests, sent him with an attorney to look for the required papers. While the attorney was searching for them, — he says, — among various other of Dante's writings, including many sonnets, canzoni and the like, there was one especially interesting, a little copy-book in which in Dante's own hand were written the preceding seven cantos. And so he took it and carried it home; and having read and re-read it, though he understood little of it, he deemed it to be an excellent thing. To find out what it was, he determined that he ought to take it to a worthy man of our city, who at that time enjoyed great fame as a poet in rime, one Dino di Messer Lambertuccio Frescobaldi. Dino, who was marvelously pleased with them, made a copy for several of his friends and recognizing that the work was merely begun and not completed, he thought it well to send it to Dante and to pray him to finish the task which he had undertaken.

"Having found after some inquiry that Dante was at that time in Lunigiana with a noble of the Malespina family, named Marquis Moruello, who was a man of understanding and a particular friend of his, he decided to send them, not to Dante but to the Marquis, that he might bring them forth and show them to him. And so he did, praying him, so far as in him lay, to urge Dante to continue his undertaking and if possible to finish it.

"When the seven cantos came to the hands of the Marquis, he was marvelously pleased with them and showed them to Dante. Being assured that they were his work, he begged him to continue the undertaking, to which they say that Dante replied:¹

"I truly thought that these, with many other of my possessions and writings, had been lost at the time when my house was robbed, and therefore I had wholly taken my mind and thought from them. But since it is God's pleasure that they be not lost, and since he has sent

¹ Benvenuto da Imola gives the reply thus (I, 274): "*Redditus est mihi maximus labor cum honore perpetuo.*"

them again to me, I will endeavor with all my power to continue the task according to my first intention.'

"Therefore, returning to his former plan and taking up anew the interrupted work, he said at the beginning of the eighth canto, 'Io dico seguitando,' after the things long since interrupted.

"Now this same story, word for word without the slightest variance, was told me sometime since by a certain Ser Dino Perini, one of our citizens and a man of understanding and, according to his own statement, a most intimate friend of Dante's. But he did alter the facts in so far that he said that it was *he* and not Andrea Leoni whom the lady had sent to the chests for the papers, and that *he* had found the seven cantos and had taken them to Dino di Messer Lambertuccio.

"I know not which of the two I ought rather to believe; but whether or no either of them speaks the truth, there is one doubtful matter in their words which I can in no wise solve to my satisfaction, and that is this: in the sixth canto the author introduces Ciaccio and makes him foretell that before the end of the third year from the day on which he speaks, Dante's party must fall from power — an event which actually happened, for, as we have said, the fall of the White party was coincident with the departure from Florence. Wherefore, if the author departed at the time we have mentioned before, how could he have written this? and not only this, but another canto? It is certain that Dante did not possess the spirit of prophecy, by which he might write of the future; and it seems exceedingly probable to me that he wrote what Ciaccio said, after it happened. Under this interpretation the words of these men are ill in keeping with the actual facts. Supposing that someone says that the author might have remained secretly in Florence after the departure of the Whites, and then have written the sixth and seventh cantos before his departure, this is not in accordance with the author's reply to the Marquis, in which he said that he believed that these cantos had been lost with his other possessions when his house was robbed. And the theory that the author might have added the words, which he puts in Ciaccio's mouth, to the sixth canto after he had recovered it, cannot be supported if there is any truth in the account given by the two men whom I have named — that Dino di Messer Lambertuccio had given a copy to many of his friends, inasmuch as some one of the copies without these words would surely appear, or surely through some ancient source,

actual or verbal, there would be some memory of it. Now how this happened or could have happened, I will leave to the judgment of the readers; each man may believe what seems to him most true or most probable."

Of course, we may at once say that these Dinos, summoned by Dante's wife, are mere figments of Boccaccio's fancy and that the whole story is simply an attempt to explain the words which begin the eighth canto. In the *Vita* and the *Compendio* no mention is made of the sources of the story nor is there any confession of doubt as to its reliability. On the whole, however, the presence of this discussion with reference to the Ciaccio episode in the later and more critical document leads me to believe that the account is really derived from an oral source. At least there seems to have grown up, perhaps through a perversion of this account, a tradition that even in Dante's time the populace was familiar with the *Divina Commedia* and often sang it.¹ There is a tale of Franco Sacchetti's, which we shall have occasion to quote later,² in which Dante meets a blacksmith singing "the book"; "*the book*" can hardly refer to anything but the *Commedia*. From Dante we have nothing to corroborate this idea; although there are several statements in his works implying that his lyrics were known, no mention is made of the knowledge of his definitive work, unless there be a suggestion in the phrase "il nome mio ancor molto non suona" (*Purg.* XIV, 21), which is highly improbable.

Quite as widely known is an anecdote with regard to the composition of the poem, found in the so-called "Letter of Hilary,"³ which is appended to a manuscript of Boccaccio. The superscription reads:

"To the renowned and magnificent lord Uguccone della Faggiola, highly pre-eminent amongst Italian magnates, brother Ilario, a humble monk of Corvo, at the mouth of the Macra, wishes salvation to him who is the true salvation of us all." After a few words on the text, "By their fruits ye shall know them," the writer begins,

"Now this man whose work, together with my exposition of it, I purpose sending you, seems, of all Italians, to have unlocked these things

¹ Cf. F. D. Guerrazzi, *I Dannati* (in *Dante e il suo secolo*, Florence, 1865, II, 348).

² Cf. pp. 48 ff.

³ Cf. Papanti, pp. 202-204; translated in Wicksteed's *Early Lives of Dante*, pp. 147-151.

(according to the Scripture phrase) out of the abundance of his internal treasury, even from his boyhood ; for as I have learned from others — and very wonderful it is — before he had passed from childhood he attempted to utter unheard of things, and — which is more wonderful yet — he strove to express in vernacular speech what can scarcely be set forth in Latin itself by the most eminent authors ; and I do not mean in straightforward vernacular, but in that of song. And now, to let his praises sound in his own works, wherein without doubt they shine more clearly in the eyes of the wise, I will briefly come to the purpose.

“ Well then, when the man of whom I speak purposed to go to the regions across the mountains, and was making his way through the diocese of Luna, whether moved by the religious associations of the place or by some other cause, he betook himself to the site of the Monastery named in the superscription. And when I saw him (as yet unknown to me, and to the rest, my brothers) I asked him what he sought ; and when he answered never a word, and yet kept gazing at the architecture of the place, I asked him again what he sought. Then he, turning around upon me and the brothers, said, ‘ Peace.’ At this I burned ever more and more to learn from him what condition of man he was, and I drew him aside from the rest, and on holding some discourse with him knew who he was ; for though I had never once seen him before that day yet his fame had long since reached me. Now when he saw that I was giving him all my attention, and perceived my eagerness for his words, he drew a little book from his bosom in friendly guise enough, and frankly presented it to me. ‘ Here ’ (he said) ‘ is a part of my work, which I take it thou hast never seen. Such is the record I leave you, that you may retain the memory of me the more firmly.’ And when he had shown me the book, I took it joyfully to my bosom, opened it, and in his presence fixed my eyes intently upon it. And when I observed that the words were vernacular, and manifested some kind of wonder, he asked me what I was boggling at. And I answered that I was astonished at the quality of the language, partly because I thought it seemed difficult, nay inconceivable, that such arduous matter could have been expressed in the vernacular, and partly because it seemed incongruous for so much learning to be combined with a plebeian garb. To which he in answer : ‘ Assuredly you have reason in your thoughts ; and when first the seed, maybe implanted by Heaven, began to sprout towards such a purpose,

I chose the language rightly belonging to the same, and not only chose but (poetising in it after the accustomed fashion) I began :

" Ultima regna canam fluido contermina mundo,
 Spiritibus que lata patent, que premia solvunt
 Pro meritis cuicumque suis."

But when I pondered on the conditions of the present age, I saw how the works of the great poets are flung aside almost as things of naught ; and thus men of high birth, for whom such works were written in a better age, have (shame on them !) abandoned the liberal arts to the common folk. Wherefore I put aside the lyre to which I had trusted, and tuned another, in harmony with the tastes of the moderns ; for in vain is tooth-
 food put to the mouths of them that suck.' And after saying this he added, with much affection, that if I could have leisure for such occupations, I was to go through the work with certain brief annotations, and send it on, so annotated, to you. Whereat, though I have not fully extracted all that lies concealed in his words, I have faithfully and with free heart labored ; and now in accordance with the command of that profound well-wisher of yours, I send you the work itself with the notes. And if herein aught shall seem doubtful, impute it only to my incapacity, for without doubt the text itself must be regarded as without defect in every way.

" But if Your Magnificence should at any time make enquiry about the other two parts of this work (as one who proposes to make a whole, by collecting the parts), you are to demand the second part, which follows upon this, of the renowned lord, Marquis Moroello. And the third will be able to be found with the most illustrious Frederic, King of Sicily. For, as he who is its author assured me he had purposed and designed, after considering the whole of Italy, he singled out you three, out of all the rest, to receive the offering of this three-fold work. . . ."

Even without the erroneous statements with respect to the dedication of the parts of the *Divina Commedia* which appear in the closing words of the letter, there is little reason for looking upon the document as trustworthy ; there is a touch of the melodramatic in the scene of Dante, gazing at the architecture and turning to say, " Peace ! " Boccaccio himself evidently felt some doubt of its value, for having briefly told the story as it is given here,¹ he adds : " Some will have it that he dedicated

¹ *Vita*, pp. 71-72.

the whole to Messer Cane della Scala; but as to which of these two is the truth, we have nothing else to go on save only as sundry, each after his fancy, discourse; nor is it a matter of so great weight as to call for serious consideration." This is indeed a naïve critical method, but I believe it to be sincere and therefore cannot agree with those who would have it that Boccaccio himself is the author of the letter,¹ citing certain similarities in phraseology. Whether it is the work of Boccaccio or of some petty friar, eager to lend a color of personal acquaintance to his commentary, the story that Dante started the *Commedia* in Latin is frequently repeated among the biographers;² the source is unmistakably the Hilary letter, for the verses quoted never pass the limit there given and often only the first line is found.

There are several other anecdotes related by Boccaccio, Benvenuto da Imola, and the *Anonimo Fiorentino* which seem to be derived through oral tradition from those who had known Dante; but as they are all told to illustrate some phase of his character, I have reserved them for their more fitting surroundings, including in this chapter only such of the earliest traditions as bear some direct testimony concerning the details of his life.

2. DANTE THE PILGRIM

In the pathetic passage in the *Convivio* where he tells of his exile, Dante says, "per le parti quasi tutte alle quali questa lingua si stende, peregrino, quasi mendicando, sono andato" (*Conv.* I, III, 28-30). But tradition, not content with representing him at Bologna, Verona, Siena, Venice, Naples, Padua, Ravenna, and other towns of the Italian peninsula, made of him a world-wayfarer. In fact Antonio Pucci, whose *Centiloquio*³ is a *terza rima* redaction of Giovanni Villani's *Cronica*, tells us,

"Dante par che cercasse tutto il mondo,
E l'aria, e 'l ciel; chè, quanto dir se 'n possa
Esso ne disse con parlar profondo,
Con sì bel modo, che la gente grossa
Si crede ch' e' cercasse veramente
Li sopradetti luoghi in carne e in ossa."

¹ Cf. Zingarelli, *Dante*, pp. 243-245.

² Cf. F. Villani (Solerti, p. 88); G. Manetti (Solerti, p. 147); and G. M. Filelfo (Solerti, p. 181).

³ In Solerti, pp. 5-7, ll. 217-222 (Capitolo IV). The *Capitolo* on Dante has also been printed by A. D'Ancona, Pisa, 1868, and by V. Imbriani, Naples, 1880.

That Dante had studied in Paris was a generally accepted belief in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries; from Giovanni Villani on, we find this referred to in all of the biographers except Filippo Villani and Lionardo Bruni. Although little weight can be attached to arguments which cite passages from his works as revealing a personal acquaintance with the city, such as

"Essa è la luce eterna di Sigieri
Che leggendo nel vico degli strami
Sillogettò invidiosi veri,"

(*Par. X*, 136-138)

most of which must have been matters of common knowledge among men of learning, it is highly reasonable that Dante should have had recourse to the greatest of the theological schools of his day in the preparation for his final work.

Pucci would have us believe¹ that having refused to accept the patronage of the Pope — which one he does not state —

"Appresso se ne andò al re di Francia
Ed anch'ei il volle con seco tenere
E non volle esser sotto sua bilancia,"

and we have further evidence of this tradition in an anecdote by Vespasiano da Bisticci which repeats a time-worn tale about Dante, as happening "nella corte del re di Francia."² The only other attempt to particularize Giovanni Villani's general statement that Dante studied "in many parts of the world" (*in più parti del mondo*)³ is that of Giovanni da Serravalle, in the *Preambula* to his commentary,⁴ which, as he tells us, was completed in 1417. Here, in two passages, we learn that Dante was also a student at Oxford. In a Latin letter in hexameters which Boccaccio sent to Petrarch with a copy of the *Divina Commedia*, there is a mention of his having visited, among other places throughout the world, — such as "Aonios fontes" and "Parnassi culmen," —

"Parisios dudum, extremosque Britannos,"⁵

where no one would think of interpreting the reference to England as other than a sort of *ultima Thule*. No one after Giovanni da Serravalle

¹ *Centiloquio*, ll. 165-167.

² Cf. p. 42.

³ *Cronica*, II, 235.

⁴ *Translatio et comentum totius libri Dantis Aldighieri*, Prato, 1891, pp. 15 and 21.

⁵ *Le lettere edite e inedite*, Florence, 1877, pp. 53-54.

saw fit to repeat his statement and it was probably a simple fabrication, arising, as Dr. Moore suggests,¹ from a desire on the writer's part to flatter his English patrons, one of whom, Robert Hallam, had formerly been Chancellor of the University of Oxford.

With the story of Dante's wanderings may properly be placed a brief mention of the tradition which shows us Dante as a teacher. Speaking of Dante's stay in Ravenna under the protection of Guido da Polenta, Boccaccio says,² "And here by his teachings he trained many scholars in poetry, especially in the vernacular." This statement, amplified with years, appears in Giannozzo Manetti's *Vita Dantis*³ and still more definitely in the *Capitolo fatto per la morte di Dante*⁴ by Dino Forestani, or, as he was generally called, Saviozzo da Siena.

"Ravenna tu 'l sai ben, chè dir non cale,
Qui cominciò di legger Dante in pria
Retorica vulgare e molto esperti
Fece di sua poetica armonia."

Even more conclusive as evidence of the popular nature of this tradition is a fragmentary anecdote by an anonymous hand, found appended to a fifteenth century manuscript of the *Paradiso*.⁵

"It is a well known story that when Dante was a schoolmaster in Ravenna, reading diverse works as a teacher, a number of teachers and men of learning and scholars gathered one day near the schoolhouse and were discussing various subjects in several little groups. Among other things they fell to speaking of Dante's knowledge, and a worthy teacher said, 'You are discussing the knowledge of a boor.' Whereat he was reproved and again he said, 'I say that Dante is a boor.'⁶ And he was asked why. Then he answered, 'Because Dante has said everything that

¹ *Early Biographers*, p. 112.

² *Vita*, p. 31.

³ In Solerti, p. 137.

⁴ Edited by E. Narducci, Rome, 1859, p. 25.

⁵ Papanti, p. 114.

⁶ This same idea is found at the end of the *Chiose sopra Dante* (Testo inedito, Florence, 1846, p. 717), where on the final verses of the manuscript,

"O tu ch'achatti i' libro del villano,
Rendilo presto, perchè gran piacere
Ne tra' chostui acchi 'l chavi di mano,"

there is a comment in the margin, "Dante si chiama il villano perchè e' no' lasciò a dire ad altri nulla," and a similar expression is found in a tale of Vincenzio Borghini (in Papanti, p. 179), there placed in the mouth of Petrarch.

is worthy of memory or fame, in his poetical works and has left nothing for anyone else to say; therefore I say, he is a boor.'"

Unfortunately the rest of the manuscript is mutilated, although enough remains to make it evident that Dante is drawn into the controversy and makes a sharp retort.

Another tradition places his teaching activity at Gubbio as well as Ravenna. In the apocryphal sonnet to Busone da Gubbio, included in most of the early editions of Dante's lyrics, the poet is represented as saying —¹

"... del car figliuol vidi presente
El frutto che sperasti e sì repente
S' avaccia nello stil greco e francesco,"

a passage often quoted in the past as a proof that Dante knew Greek. So, too, we find in the *Liber de Theleutologio*, a moral work of the fifteenth century, perhaps written by Sebastiano da Gubbio, these words from the author to his son,² — "Dante, the instructor of your youth from your tender years" ([*Dantem*] *tuae a teneris annis adolescentiae preceptorem*).

This is a type of tradition which sheds light on a part of Dante's life, untouched by any of the more certain documents. Provided that we do not admit the truth of Mr. George Bernard Shaw's aphorism, that "Those that can, do; those that can't, teach," teaching seems to be the most natural profession for a man of Dante's learning to have entered upon, to eke out a meager livelihood. That financial matters were of intimate concern to him during his years of exile is evident from several passages in his works besides the one already quoted, most strikingly in the epistle dedicatory to Can Grande, where he excuses his failure to give a more detailed exposition of the prologue with the words³ — "for I am pressed by my narrow domestic circumstances so that I must needs relinquish this and other matters profitable to the common good" (*urget enim me rei familiaris angustia, ut haec et alia utilia reipublicae derelinquere oporteat*). Surely a tradition which figures the first scholar to study the Italian tongue and an adept in the literature of the troubadours as also a teacher of the younger generation can do little violence to the truth.

¹ *Poesie liriche di Dante*, ed. G. Fornaro, Rome, 1843, Sonnet XXXIII, p. 205.

² In Solerti, p. 30, note 1.

³ Epistola X, ll. 600 ff.

3. DANTE'S PERSONAL APPEARANCE

The subject of Dante's personal appearance has received a fitting treatment by Professor Norton;¹ with two contemporary representations, there was little opportunity for a tradition to arise about his features. But there is one phase of the traditional conception which perhaps deserves a word. Says Boccaccio,² "This our poet, then, was of middle height; and when he had reached maturity he went somewhat bowed, his gait grave and gentle, and ever clad in most seemly apparel, in such garb as befitted his ripe years. His face was long, his nose aquiline, and his eyes rather large than small; his jaws big, and the underlip protruding beyond the upper," a description which Professor Norton has shown to be in perfect accord with both the Giotto portrait and the death mask, as far as the features are concerned; the other details must rest on oral tradition. Then he continues, "His complexion was dark, his hair and beard, thick, black and curling, and his expression was ever melancholy and thoughtful. Hence it chanced one day in Verona (when the fame of his works had spread abroad everywhere, and especially that part of his Comedy which he entitles *Inferno*; and when he himself was known by sight to many, both men and women), that as he passed by a gateway where sat a group of women, one of them said to the others, softly, yet so that she was heard well enough by him and by his company: 'Do you see the man who goes to Hell, and comes again, at his pleasure?' To the which one of the others answered in all good faith: 'In truth it must needs be as thou sayest. See'st thou not how his beard is crisped and his skin darkened by the heat and smoke that are there below?' And hearing these words spoken behind him and perceiving that they sprang from perfect belief of the women, he was pleased, and as though content that they should be of such opinion, he passed on, smiling a little."³

This anecdote, which is repeated almost exactly in Manetti's Latin redaction, and also, with the scene transferred to Ravenna, in Filelfo and Landino,⁴ has given rise to considerable discussion as to Dante's complexion and as to whether or no he wore a beard. Naturally we cannot

¹ Printed in C. A. Dinsmore's *Aids to the Study of Dante*, Boston, 1903, pp. 149-159.

² *Vita*, p. 43.

³ Antonius Chartularius, in his *De vita Dantis* (in Solerti, p. 78, note 4) adds: "qui raro vel numquam ridere solebat."

⁴ All in Solerti, pp. 139, 174, and 190.

expect to find any direct evidence in his work, but there are certain passages which in some wise bear on the subject. As for the color of his hair, we have his own words,

"Nonne triumphales melius pexare capillos
Et patrio, redeam si quando, abscondere canos
Fronde sub inserta solitum flavescere Sarno?"

(*Ecloga* I, 42-44)

Flavescere should mean "be golden yellow," although it is not impossible to interpret it as "be reddish" or "auburn," and the second interpretation might be made to accord with Boccaccio's statement that his hair was black, by saying that in his mature years Dante's erstwhile auburn locks grew dark, as is wont to happen with the lapse of time. Frankly, this sort of argument is, to my thinking, little more than hair-splitting, and it looks as though the statement is the result of the anecdote rather than the fact its occasion.

Another passage is the scene on the shore of the Island of Purgatory, where Virgil cleanses Dante from the stains of Hell:

"Ond' io che fui accorto di su' arte,
Porsi ver lui le guance lagrimose:
Quivi mi fece tutto discoperto
Quel color che l' inferno mi nascose;"

(*Purg.* I, 126-129)

which surely must have been in Boccaccio's mind, as he told the story of the ladies of Verona.

With regard to the wearing of a beard, the regularly quoted passage in this connection is Beatrice's command:

"alza la barba
E prenderai più doglia riguardando."

(*Purg.* XXXI, 68-69)

Of course this is not conclusive, for Dante adds,

"E quando per la barba il viso chiese,
Ben conobbi il velen dell' argomento,"

(ll. 74-75)

where we cannot be certain whether his meaning is, "I felt the poison of her words, because she called my beardless face, 'my beard' (*la barba*),

as a symbol of my manhood" or "because she chose to name that characteristic of my face, namely my beard, which stood for my manhood." No arguments can properly be drawn from the Giotto portrait nor the death mask; the former represents him as a youth, when even Boccaccio thought of him as beardless, if we are to see any meaning in his remark that after the death of Beatrice he went about "gaunt and unshaven" (*magro, barbuto*);¹ the latter must perforce have been taken when he was shaven. Perhaps the most we can say is that Dante in his later years may have worn a beard, which, after all, is saying nothing. It might well be observed, however, that of all the ideal representations of Dante which have been made since his death, not one portrays him with a beard—a fact which would seem to argue that the statement of Boccaccio is not a popular tradition but only an ingenious invention of the author's to give excuse for a story.²

Here it is fitting to add further details of Dante's private life and habits, manifestly taken from popular, oral tradition, as recorded by Boccaccio and Bruni. "In his private and public manners," says the former,³ "he was wondrous orderly and composed, and in all things was he courteous and polished beyond any other. In food and drink he was most moderate,⁴ both in taking them at the appointed hours and in never going beyond the limit of necessity, nor did he ever show any nicety in one thing rather than another. Delicate viands he complimented, and for the most part fed on plain ones, blaming beyond measure such as bestow great part of their study on getting choice things and having them prepared with extreme diligence; declaring that the likes of these do not eat to live, but rather live to eat. No man kept vigil more than he, whether in studies or in any such other concern as might assail him; in so much that many a time both his household and his wife were grieved thereat, until they grew used to his ways and took no further note of it. Seldom did he speak save when questioned, and that deliberately

¹ *Vita*, p. 18.

² In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries we find several times repeated an anecdote which tells of a vulgar, riddle-like retort from Dante to a man who called him a letter "I," because he was "di persona molto piccolo." It goes without saying that this is not representative either of popular or of literary tradition.

³ *Vita*, pp. 43-44.

⁴ Cf. Suetonius, *Life of Virgil* (in Nettlehip's *Ancient Lives of Virgil*, Oxford, 1879, p. 10), "cibi vinique minimi."

and with voice suited to the matter of discourse; not but what, when occasion rose, he was most eloquent and copious, and with excellent and ready delivery." Bruni has one or two other familiar touches:¹ "He delighted in music and melodies and himself drew excellently. He wrote a finished hand, with thin, long letters perfectly formed, as I have seen in certain epistles written with his own hand." Since these and other notices found in later imitators have been thoroughly discussed by Dr. Moore,² I will not enter upon the sundry evidences of the truth of these traditional statements which may be cited from Dante's writings.

Such is the figure of Dante that lived on in tradition. It is a many-sided one — we see him as a lover, as a man of action, as a wanderer, as a teacher. Now and then through the magic glass of these old biographers or commentators we catch a glimpse of the man as he lived and moved among his fellows. But thus far it has been hardly more than a figure. Leaving this external, this impersonal, picture of Dante, we come now to a consideration of the inner life of the poet, of his temperamental traits, of his essential personality.

¹ *Vita di Dante* (in Solerti, p. 104).

² *Early Biographers*, pp. 130-140.

CHAPTER III

THE PERSONALITY OF DANTE

I. SUNDRY TRAITS

The starting-point of all tradition is the anecdote. General ideas do not thrive in the popular mind, but give them specific form in some striking, pithy tale and they will abide with the generations. It is in this form that most of our ideas of Dante have come down to us, and particularly with Boccaccio do we find an anecdote to be the nucleus for all his general ideas of the poet. So consummate an artist as he, undoubtedly recognized the value of tales as a mere ornament to enliven his style, but to-day we find their greatest interest in the character they reflect. Let us listen to some of his stories.¹

"In his studies [Dante] was most assiduous, during such time as he assigned to them; in so much that nothing, however startling to hear, could distract him from them. And as concerning this giving himself up wholly to the thing that pleased him, there are certain worthy of faith, who relate how one of the times when he was in Siena he chanced to be at an apothecary's shop, and there a little book that had been promised him before was placed in his hand, which book was of much fame amongst men of worth, and had never yet been seen of him; and, as it befell, not having opportunity to take it to some other place, he lay with his breast upon the bench that stood before the apothecary's and set the book before him and began most eagerly to examine it; and although soon after, in that very district, right before him, by occasion of some general festival of the Sienese, a great tournament was begun and carried through by certain young gentlemen, and therewith the mightiest din of them around — as in like cases is wont to come about, with various instruments and with applauding shouts — and although many other things took place such as might draw one to look on them, as dances of fair ladies, and sundry sports of youth, yet was there never a one that

¹ *Vita*, pp. 45-46.

saw him stir thence, nor once raise his eyes from the book ; nay rather, he having placed himself there about the hour of noon, it was past vespers, and he had examined it all and as it were taken a general survey thereof, ere he raised himself up from it, declaring afterwards, to certain who asked him how he could hold himself from looking upon so fair festivities as had been done before him, that he had perceived naught at all of them ; whereat for his questioners a second wonder was not unduly added to the first."

Here is an account which, if not the report of an actual occurrence, accords in every particular with the Dante of his own works. Indeed, in the *Purgatorio* there is apparently a reference to exactly such an event as that recorded by Boccaccio :

" O immaginativa, che ne rube
 Tal volta sì di fuor ch' uom non s' accorge
 Perchè d' intorno suonin mille tube
 Chi move te, se il senso non ti porge."
 (*Purg.* XVII, 13-16)

In the *Vita Nuova* (XXXV), Dante relates this little anecdote : " On that day which fulfilled the year since my lady had been made of the citizens of eternal life, remembering me of her as I sat alone, I betook myself to draw the resemblance of an angel upon certain tablets and while I did thus, chancing to turn my head, I perceived that some were standing beside me to whom I should have given courteous welcome, and that they were observing what I did : also I learned afterwards that they had been there a while before I perceived them. Perceiving whom, I rose for salutation, and said, ' Another was with me, and therefore was I in thought.' " Once more, when Beatrice smiles to him on the Mountain of Purgatory, after ten years of longing thirst his eyes are so intent upon her that he must be aroused by a cry of " *Troppo fiso* " (*Purg.* XXXII, 9). This same theme of obsession by a single interest was employed by him as a metaphysical argument, in commenting on the lapse of time while Manfred has been revealing to him his future and the power of prayer on earth.

" Quando per dilettanze ovver per doglie,
 Che alcuna virtù nostra comprenda,
 L' anima bene ad essa si raccoglie,
 Par che a nulla potenza più intenda ;

E questo è contra quello error, che crede
 Che un' anima sopr' altra in noi s' accenda.
 E però, quando s' ode cosa o vede,
 Che tenga forte a sè l' anima volta,
 Vassene il tempo, e l' uom non se n' avvede :
 Ch' altra potenza è quella che l' ascolta,
 Ed altra quella che ha l' anima intera :
 Questa è quasi legata, e quella è sciolta."

(*Purg.* IV, 1-12)

Whether or no the shop in Siena, still pointed out as the scene of Boccaccio's story,¹ has any real claim to such a fame, — for that matter, whether or no its author received it from a trustworthy source or fabricated it himself on the basis of Dante's own lines, — we feel our interest quickened at the retelling of this curious tale. We know how greedy for knowledge was Dante, how inquisitive to see the whole truth, for not the least of the joys of his Paradise is the satisfaction of this craving. Nor was it a merely idle curiosity but the object of his greatest concern. How far his power of concentration carried him in his search for truth can best be expressed by saying that he was not only the noblest poet of his age but also the profoundest scholar.

In the acquirement of what, in his day, was practically the *omne scibile*, Dante was aided by another faculty to which Boccaccio has called attention.²

"Moreover, this poet was of marvelous capacity and firmness of memory, and of piercing intellect, in so much that when he was in Paris, and in a disputation *de quolibet* held there in the schools of theology, fourteen theses had been maintained by divers men of worth on divers matters, he straightway gathered all together, with the arguments for and against urged by the opponents, and in due sequence, as they had been produced, recited them without break, following the same order, subtly solving and refuting the counter arguments, the which thing was reputed all but a miracle by them that stood by."

Nowadays we are grown accustomed to similar feats by chess-players, but we need not marvel if then it was counted prodigious. It is not strange either that Dante was reputed to have a memory above the average; even in Boccaccio's day there must have been many a man —

¹ Cf. Papanti, p. 28, note 5.

² *Vita*, p. 46.

whose father or other ancestor rejoiced in a permanent resting place in Inferno, thanks to Dante's excellent memory — who heartily wished that he had forgotten some things. Strangely enough, one of the very few traditions which have persisted in the popular mind, and which have not found their way into print until almost our own day, concerns Dante's memory.

"There is a popular tradition," says Fraticelli,¹ "that when Dante was in Florence, on warm evenings he used to frequent the Piazza di Santa Maria del Fiore, then called Santa Reparata, to enjoy the cool air, sitting on a bit of wall, at a place where a few years ago a tablet was set up with the inscription *Sasso di Dante*. Now one evening while he was sitting there, a stranger approached and asked him: 'Messere, I am pledged to give an answer and I know not how to get out of my trouble. You who are so learned perhaps can suggest a way to me. What is the best mouthful?' Dante without hesitating answered, 'The egg.' A year later, he was sitting on the same wall, when the man appeared again and had no sooner seen him than he asked, 'With what?' And Dante promptly, 'With salt.' And it was a wonderful thing — according to those who believe such tales — that although caught thus off his guard, he managed to recall the first question and, connecting it with the second, to answer so perfectly to the point." This is one of the tales that rivals the phoenix; in the seventeenth century it turns up in Sicily, as an event in the life of a popular poet, Pietro Fullone, and I have heard of its being told within the last decade, almost without change, to a class in psychology, as an actual occurrence illustrating the association of ideas.

Turning now to what Boccaccio is pleased to include among Dante's *qualità e difetti*,² we learn that "he took full much to himself; nor, as those of his day report, did he deem himself of lesser worth than in truth he was. The which appeared once, amongst other times, most notably, whilst he was with his faction at the highest point of the government of the Commonwealth. For when they who were undermost had, by mediation of Pope Boniface VIII, summoned a brother or relative of Philip, then king of France, whose name was Charles, to make straight the affairs of our city, all the chief men of that faction with which Dante

¹ *Vita di D. A.*, p. 263; also in Papanti, p. 205, and in Crane, *Italian Popular Tales*, Boston, 1885, p. 381.

² *Vita*, p. 60.

held, assembled in council to make provision against this; and there, amongst other things they ordained that an embassy should be sent to the Pope, who was then at Rome, to induce him to oppose the coming of the said Charles, or to make him come in concert with the party which was then in power. And when they came to consider who should be the chief of this embassy, they all said that it must be Dante; to which request Dante, after pondering in himself for a space, replied, 'If I go, who stays? If I stay, who goes?' As though he alone amongst all the others had any worth or gave any worth to the rest."

The anecdote is probably apocryphal and is found in a collection of *Facezie e motti* of the fifteenth century¹ as the remark of a certain Duke Giovanni, instead of Dante. But disregarding the question of its actual occurrence, let us consider what there is in Dante's own work which would warrant such a charge of presumption against him.

As he walks on the dike beside the fire-swept sand, conversing with Brunetto Latini, his old teacher says:

"Se tu segui tua stella,
Non puoi fallire al glorioso porto,
Se ben m' accorsi nella vita bella:
E s' io non fossi sì per tempo morto,
Veggendo il cielo a te così benigno,
Dato t' avrei all' opera conforto.
Ma quell' ingrato popolo maligno,
Che discese di Fiesole ab antico
E tiene ancor del monte e del macigno,
Ti si farà, per tuo ben far, nimico:
Ed è ragion; chè tra li lazzi sorbi
Si disconvien fruttare al dolce fico."

(Inf. XV, 55-66)

Herein at once we have a commendation of past service and a promise of future glory; his confidence in the future is as great as his sense of satisfaction with the past. There are numerous passages in the *Divina Commedia* which point to this confidence, particularly with respect to his

¹ *Facezie e motti dei secoli XV e XVI*, ed. Papanti, Bologna, 1874 (*Scelta di curiosità letterarie*, CXXXVIII), No. 13, p. 9:

"Il signore Ruberto da san Severino usa dire: E' si vuole vincere. Item: chi vuole ire, vada. Et pero il duca Giovanni, quandq era in consulta di far la impresa del reame, dubitando delle cose di casa sua, disse: Se io sto, chi va? et se io vo, chi sta qui, Signore?"

fame as a poet. In *Limbo* he is taken into the goodly company of the poets — Virgil, Homer, Horace, Ovid, and Lucan (*Inf.* IV, 100–102); speaking of Guinizelli's having yielded to Cavalcanti the glory of the tongue, he says:

" — e forse è nato
Chi l' uno e l' altro cacerà di nido,"
(*Purg.* XI, 98–99)

which seems with all probability to refer to himself. Passing over the implication of the line

" Chè il nome mio ancor molto non suona,"
(*Purg.* XIV, 21)

we have from the lips of Cacciaguida a definite statement of the divine call and the earthly power of his work.

" Tutta tua vision fa manifesta,
E lascia pur grattar dov' è la rognà;
Chè se la voce tua sarà molesta
Nel primo gusto, vital nutrimento
Lascerà poi quando sarà digesta.
Questo tuo grido farà come vento
Che le più alte cime più percore;
E ciò non fa d' onor poco argomento."
(*Purg.* XVII, 128–135)

We, to-day, in view of the verdict of the centuries, may well accept as natural such a splendid self-assurance, but it is not surprising if Boccaccio and others of his day sometimes felt that Dante was arrogating unto himself more than was becoming to a mortal. But Boccaccio manifestly looks on his demeanor as justifiable if not actually praiseworthy; it is the dignified self-satisfaction of the man who is confident of his verdict from God and from man, the true magnanimity, or better, in Aristotle's language, *μεγαλοψυχία*.

2. "ALMA SDEGNOSA"

For all of the traits of Dante of which we have caught a glimpse thus far, we are indebted to Boccaccio; outside of frequent repetitions by his followers, he is the only interpreter. One phase of Dante's nature, however, remained, as Professor Del Lungo has said,¹ "traditionally

¹ *Dal secolo e dal poema di Dante*, Bologna, 1898, p. 353.

characteristic of Dante the man and Dante the poet, — disdain, or rather scorn." And there has survived a considerable body of tradition which emphasizes this trait, scattered through writers of every sort, from the serious chronicler to the dispenser of airy badinage. This was the one item of personal comment which the first of his biographers, Giovanni Villani,¹ saw fit to include in his outline. "This Dante," he says, "because of his knowledge was somewhat haughty and reserved and disdainful, and after the fashion of a philosopher, careless of graces and not easy in his converse with laymen."² Boccaccio, to illustrate this scornful temperament, relates a story from his experience — I quote from the *Compendio*,³ in which it takes the form of an anecdote.

"Dante was of a very lofty and disdainful disposition, in so much that when a certain friend of his strove to bring about his return to Florence, and could find no other way thereto, unless he should abide for a time in prison and then be presented as an offering, by way of mercy, at the church of S. Giovanni, Dante, crushing his ardent desire to return, answered, 'God forbid that any man, bred and reared in the lap of philosophy, should become the sorry candle of his commune.'" In the *Vita*,⁴ moralizing he continues: "Oh worthy and magnanimous disdain, how didst thou play the man!"

With this story one naturally associates the *Epistola Amico Fiorentino*,⁵ and with more reason, inasmuch as the letter is found in that text of Boccaccio's which also contains the "Letter of Hilary." I will cite a portion to show how closely it tallies with Boccaccio. "Is this then the glorious recall wherewith Dante Alighieri is summoned back to his country after an exile patiently endured for almost fifteen years? Did his innocence, manifest to whomsoever it may be, deserve this — this, the sweat and unceasing toil of study? Far be the rash humility of a heart of earth from a man familiar with philosophy, that like a prisoner he may suffer himself to be offered up after the manner of a certain Ciolo and other criminals. Far be it from a man who preaches justice after having

¹ *Cronica*, II, 235.

² Cf. Antonio Pucci, *Centiloquio*, lines 256-258 (in Solerti, p. 7):

"Dante fu bene assai presuntuoso
E co' laici poco conversava
E di tutti era schifo e disdegnoso."

³ *Compendio*, p. 52; also in Papanti, p. 10.

⁴ *Vita*, p. 59.

⁵ *Epistola* IX, p. 413.

patiently endured injury to pay his money to those inflicting it, as though they were his benefactors." Bartoli¹ and Scartazzini² have argued against the authenticity of the letter and with justice. The very fact that in the passage just quoted and also a few lines later, the name "Dantes" appears is almost convincing evidence that it does not come from the hand of the poet, who, when for the first and only time in all his writings he has allowed his own name to be uttered—in Beatrice's words,

"Dante, perchè Virgilio se ne vada,
Non pianger anco, non pianger ancora,"
(*Purg.* XXX, 55-56)

thinks it necessary to add,

". . . mi volsi al suon del nome mio,
Che di necessità qui si registra."³
(ll. 62-63)

Whether it was Boccaccio or some contemporary who fabricated the epistle, it stands as an example of the traditional conception of Dante's scornful independence.

In another letter,⁴ formerly attributed to Dante but now generally admitted to be spurious, we find the same trait thrown into relief. Dante is represented as writing to Guido da Polenta some account of his embassy to the Venetian republic⁵ and has remarked how his careful speech of felicitation on the election of a new Doge, couched in seemly Latin, was answered by a request to provide an interpreter or change in mode of speech. "Thus between astonishment and scorn," he continues, "I know not which the more, I began to say a few words in that tongue which I have used from what time I was in swaddling clothes, which was but little more familiar and natural to them than the Latin had been. . . .

¹ *Vita di D. A.*, ed. cit., p. 287, note 2.

² In *Ein Kapitel aus dem Dante-Roman* (in *Schweizerische Rundschau*).

³ Cf. *Convivio*, I, 2, 15 ff. "Non si concede per li rettorici alcuno di sè medesimo senza necessaria cagione parlare."

⁴ In Papanti, pp. 3-5.

⁵ Giovanni Villani, II, 235, mentions an embassy to Venice, and Filippo Villani (in Solerti, pp. 86-87) says that on this embassy he contracted the illness which resulted in his death. Manifestly it is not the one, then, which is referred to in this letter, dated March 30, 1314. But the author was rather careless of dates—a fact demonstrated by the knowledge that Guido was not "Lord of Ravenna" in 1314 and that no Doge of Venice was elected between 1312 and 1328. Cf. Latham, *Dante's Eleven Letters*, p. 277.

But that they do not understand the Italian speech is not at all a matter of wonder, since, descended from Greek and Dalmatian progenitors, they have brought to this delectable land nothing but the worst and most shameful customs, together with the mire of all unbridled lasciviousness." The bitterness of the attack on the Venetians can hardly have been suggested by Dante's comment on their idiom in the *De vulgari eloquentia* (I, 14), where he treats them with leniency, and we must rather suppose the author to have been prompted by some civic animosity. For the rest, the letter adds little to our understanding of Dante.

Before proceeding to a discussion of the various anecdotes illustrative of Dante's scornful temper, we may well pause for a moment to observe what evidence of this trait we may find in his works. The *Inferno* presents Dante in a rôle which must assuredly have exercised a considerable influence in perpetuating this conception of him; only rarely does he show compassion for the damned, as in the case of Francesca or of Brunetto Latini; usually we find him cutting the tormented souls with a bitter thrust. So to the question of Filippo Argenti, sunk in the mud of the Styx — "Chi se' tu che vieni anzi ora?" — he answers,

"S'io vegno, non rimango;
Ma tu chi se', che sei sì fatto brutto?"

And after Filippo's pathetic reply,

"Vedi che son un che piango,"

comes this terrific burst of scorn,

"Con piangere e con lutto,
Spirito maledetto, ti rimani:
Ch'io ti conosco, ancor sia lordo tutto."
(*Inf.* VIII, 33 ff.)

Again, in the next circle, he finds Farinata degli Uberti among the other heretics. From his fiery tomb the patriot recalls to Dante that his Guelph ancestors have twice been cast out of Florence by the Ghibellines; and Dante,

"S'ei fur cacciati, ei tornar d'ogni parte,"
Rispos'io lui, "l'una e l'altra fiata,
Ma i vostri non appreser ben quell'arte."
(*Inf.* X, 49-51)

There is cruel irony in his retort to Alessio Interminai, who from the filth of the flatterers has demanded,

"Perchè se' tu sì ingordo
Di riguardar più me, che gli altri brutti?"
Ed io a lui: "Perchè, se ben ricordo,
Già t'ho veduto coi capelli asciutti."

(*Inf.* XVIII, 120-123)

And finally his scorn prompts him even to do violence to Bocca degli Abati, as he lies buried in the ice of Antenora (*Inf.* XXX, 97 ff.).

It is well to remark that such a treatment of the damned was to Dante's thinking veritably commendable;

"E cortesia fu in lui esser villano,"

he says after his refusal to abide by his promise to Frate Alberigo (*Inf.* XXXIII, 150), and earlier in the *Inferno*, after his retort to Filippo Argenti, which we have just mentioned, Virgil kisses him and says:

"Alma sdegnosa,
Benedetta colei che in te s'incinse."

(*Inf.* VIII, 44-45)

Of his high respect for the quality of disdain when rightly directed we have some hint in the figures he has drawn. The angel, who advances across the Styx to impose subjection on the keepers of the gate of the City of Dis, is "pien di disdegno" (*Inf.* IX, 88), and in the *Purgatorio*, Sordello, who becomes under Dante's impression almost a stamp of the Italian patriot, is thus greeted:

"O anima Lombarda,
Come ti stavi altera e disdegnosa!"

(*Purg.* VI, 61-62)

which we have seen to be precisely the description given of Dante by Boccaccio.

To Dante, then, disdain, righteous scorn, was not a sin, and had he written the last *trattato* of the *Convivio*, he would no doubt have distinguished it carefully from pride. We need not here enter into a discussion of the latter quality; let it suffice to quote one of the many passages which are brought forward to demonstrate how keenly alive

Dante was to this particular shortcoming, — his words as he enters the circle of Envy, having left that of Pride, —

"Troppo è più la paura, ond'è sospesa
L'anima mia, del tormento di sotto,
Che già lo incarco di laggiù mi pesa."
(*Purg.* XIII, 136-138)

Inasmuch as most of the anecdotes which typify Dante as the *alma sdegnosa* are also examples of his sharpness of tongue, it is not out of place to record at this point the statements of his early biographers with respect to this characteristic. Boccaccio¹ and his amplifier Manetti² merely observe that he was "eloquent and copious with excellent and ready delivery" (*eloquentissimo fu e facondo, e con ottima e pronta prola-zione*), but Bruni assures³ us that he was "very keen in retort" (*nelle sue risposte molto sottile*), and Filelfo, not to be outdone, glibly records: "He was full of *bons mots*, quips, and apothegms"⁴ (*Erat autem salium cavillorumque plenissimus et apophthegmatum*) — which would seem, after all, to be more applicable as an encomium of some local *uomo di corte* than of the judge of popes and kings. The few examples we have cited to illustrate his scornful temper in the *Inferno* will be sufficient to show how true to life this tradition was.⁵ Let us now look at the anecdotes of Dante which bear out this general belief in his sharp-tongued scorn.

Among the thousands of quaint and curious bits of information garnered in the *Res Memorandae* of Petrarch, there are two pictures of Dante at the court of Can Grande della Scala.⁶

"Dante Alighieri, who was not long since a fellow citizen of mine, was famous as a writer in the vernacular, but through arrogance he was too free in his manners and speech to find favor with the delicate eyes and ears of the princes of our time. And so as an exile, at the court of Can Grande, at that time the common place of refuge for the distressed, he was at first held in honor, but little by little he began to lose favor and to be less pleasing to his host. At table with him there used to sit

¹ *Vita*, p. 44.

³ In Solerti, p. 104.

² In Solerti, p. 140.

⁴ In Solerti, p. 175.

⁵ There is another phase of Dante's humor, — I mean the playful, the whimsical, — of which tradition took little account and which is often disregarded by modern students. One day I hope to return to this question.

⁶ *Res Memorandae*, Basel, 1581, Book II, p. 427; also in Papanti, pp. 31-32. There is a translation in Toynbee's *Dante*, pp. 176-177.

buffoons and low fellows of every sort, as is customary, and one of them, whose words and behavior were especially wanton, was held in great esteem. Can Grande, suspecting that Dante was piqued at this, called the fellow out before the company one day, and when he had showered him with praise, turning to Dante,

"'I wonder,' he said, 'what is the reason that this witless fellow has skill to please us all and to be loved by us all — a thing which you, who are supposed to be wise, cannot accomplish!'

"Dante retorted,

"'You would not wonder if you knew that equality of manners and similarity of mind is the cause of friendship.'¹"

Domenico Bandini (fl. ca. 1400) in a chapter on Dante¹ included in the book *De viris claris* of his still unpublished *Fons memorabilium universi* quotes the story of Petrarch and assigns the episode as the reason for Dante's leaving Verona for Ravenna. The frequent repetition of this and other anecdotes in which Dante scores Can Grande seems to have been the source of this belief in the lack of harmony between them. And yet if we are to interpret Dante's own tribute to his patron in the most obvious way, the words,

"A lui t'aspetta ed ai suoi benefici;
Per lui fia trasmutata molta gente,
Cambiano condizion ricchi e mendici,"
(*Par.* XVII, 88-90)

would point to a very high appreciation of his sense of justice. In all probability, Cacciaguida's prophecy,

"Tu proverai sì come sa di sale
Lo pane altrui, e com'è duro calle
Lo scendere e il salir per l'altrui scale,"
(*Par.* XVII, 58-60)

was a sufficient warrant to the story's being told on Can Grande, even in spite of any inaccuracy. For the tale-monger, finding that Dante was a man of sharp tongue, that he knew the bitterness of a courtier's life and that he had been at the court of Can Grande, it is a perfectly logical conclusion that Dante vented his scorn on Can Grande. Just how was, of course, a matter for each *novelliere* to determine for himself.

¹ In Solerti, p. 93.

As we have already observed, this "bird of a feather" story was very widely repeated of Dante. In a slightly different form it appears in Poggio's *Facetiae*,¹ in a manuscript of Michele Savonarola,² grandfather of Girolamo, in the *Facezie*³ of Lodovico Carbone, in a brief note on Dante in the *Epitoma in vitas scriptorum illustrium latinae linguae* of Sicco Polenton,⁴ and finally, as happening at the court of the French king, by Vespasiano da Bisticci.⁵ I will quote Dr. Toynbee's translation⁶ of Savonarola's version as a specimen of the variants.

"I will tell you the answer made by Dante to a buffoon at the court of the Lord della Scala of Verona, who, having received from his master a fine coat as a reward for some piece of buffoonery showed it to Dante, and said, 'You with all your letters and sonnets and books, never received a present like this.' To which Dante answered, 'What you say is true; and this has fallen to you and not to me, because you have found your likes, and I have not yet found mine. There, you understand that.'"

In this form the story becomes familiar: it is the old anecdote of Marco Lombardo, told in the *Novelle Antiche*,⁷ which ends with almost the same words, "You have found more of your likes than I of mine." As an experience of Marco Lombardo it is also recorded in the *Anonimo Fiorentino*⁸ comment on the line

"Lombardo fui, e fui chiamato Marco."

(*Purg.* XVI, 46)

Manifestly, then, we have here a well-known anecdote which in time, seeming to accord with the traditional idea of Dante, was associated with his name. As Mr. J. A. Macy remarks in his whimsical paper entitled "The Career of the Joke,"⁹ "To express new oil from jests once dry with wit and to-day not too dry with age, it is necessary only to fit

¹ *Facetiae*, London, 1798, pp. 66-67; also in Papanti, pp. 90 and 92.

² In Papanti, p. 94.

³ *Facezie*, ed. Abd-el-Kader Salza, Livorno, 1900, LXXI, pp. 51 ff.; also in Papanti, p. 111.

⁴ In Solerti, p. 155; added is: "Salsa quidem responsio et mordax."

⁵ In Papanti, pp. 116-117.

⁶ *Dante*, pp. 177-178.

⁷ Ed. Biagi, Florence, 1880, cod. Laurenz., XVII, p. 221.

⁸ Ed. P. Fanfani, Bologna, 1868, II, 262; also in *Libro di Novelle Antiche*, ed. F. Zambrini, Bologna, 1868, No. LXXVII, p. 200; and Papanti, p. 95.

⁹ In *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. xcvi (1905), pp. 498-510.

it to modern instances, to apply it locally or to connect it with the name of a contemporary celebrity"; and we shall find that to the retailer of incidents in Dante's career, the mere fact that a tale was first written down a few centuries before is only an added incentive to spur him into a masterly exercise of his ingenuity in making it fit snugly in its new surrounding.

Papanti¹ and Köhler² have listed numerous repetitions of this tale in Latin, French, and German, some of them with Dante still as the hero, others once more transferred to a new figure. As far as I can discover, it is the only anecdote which found its way into England. With the rubric, "Nota exemplum cuiusdam poete de Italia qui Dantes vocabatur," Gower gives this version in the *Confessio Amantis*:³

"I not if it be ye or nay,
How Dante the poete answerde
To a flatrour, the tale I herde,
Upon a strife betwene hem two
He said him, there ben many mo
Of thy servauntes than of min.
For the poete of his covine
Hath none, that woll him cloth and fede,
But a flatrour may reule and lede
A king with all his londe about.
So stant the wise man in doubt
Of hem that to foly drawe,
For such is now the comun lawe."⁴

But the vicissitudes of these tales are of no particular moment; Petrarch has another to tell.⁵

"On another occasion when he was a guest at a banquet of noble folk, and the master of the feast, who was already merry with wine and well stuffed with food, was sweating copiously, all the while talking a stream of frivolous, false and idle stuff, for some time he listened in angry silence. At last the whole company grew surprised at his silence, and the talkative

¹ Pp. 96-97.

² *Ueber Papanti*, etc., pp. 630-633.

³ Ed. Dr. R. Pauli, London, 1851, III, 163.

⁴ This is quoted in P. Toynbee, *The Earliest References to Dante in English Literature* (*Miscellanea di Studi Critici in onore di Arturo Graf*), Bergamo, 1903, p. 15.

⁵ *Res Memorandae*, pp. 427-428.

fellow, who, by this time, was in a spirit of exaltation at having won distinction as a wit by the consensus of opinion, laid his dripping hands on Dante and said,

" 'What! Did you think that a man who tells the truth is not working?' "

" And Dante —

" 'I was wondering why you were in such a sweat.' "

Although this keen retort is repeated in the *Facezie e Motti*¹ and in a garbled form in *La Zucca*² of Antonfrancesco Doni as well as the *Detti e fatti di diversi signori*³ of Lodovico Domenichi, there is apparently no version of it before Petrarch's. The reply is rather too *recherché* to suggest that it was one of the jests bandied about by the idlers in barbers' and apothecaries' shops.

A good old tale, fairly green with age, is one told by Benvenuto da Imola in his comment⁴ on

" Credette Cimabue nella pittura

Tener lo campo, ed ora ha Giotto il grido."

(*Purg.* XI, 94-95)

" Once when Giotto, while still a young man, was painting a chapel in Padua, in a place where there had formerly been a theatre or an arena, Dante came in. Giotto took him home full courteously and there Dante saw several ugly-looking little children who looked very much like their father. Dante asked him, 'Worthy master, why is it, I wonder, that although your other faces are so beautiful that we say you have no equal in the art of painting, your own are so ugly?' Giotto answered with a smile, 'I make my pictures (*pingo*) by daylight but I make my children (*fingo*) by night.' This reply amused Dante greatly not because it was original, for it is found in the *Liber Saturnalium* of Macrobius, but because it seemed in keeping with the man's nature."

Giotto enjoyed no small fame as a wag and he is often the subject of tales.⁵ Although the laugh is on Dante in this instance, his question is full of his customary air of superiority. In Macrobius⁶ the tale is told of an otherwise unknown painter, one L. Mallius. But it is not necessary

¹ Ed. cit., No. 140, p. 91; also in Papanti, p. 89.

³ Id., p. 147.

² In Papanti, p. 142.

⁴ Ed. cit., III, 313.

⁵ Cf. Boccaccio, *Decameron*, VI, 5, and Sacchetti, *Novelle*, 63 and 75.

⁶ *Saturnalia*, II, 2, 10, ed. Eyssenhardt, Leipzig, 1893, p. 139.

to suppose that this version came directly from him, for we have evidence that this was a well-known pun from its appearance among some Latin stories¹ of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries under the heading "De quodam pictore." In fact, it is one of the primitive jests which were probably current in Rome as early as the art of painting.

In the *Commento d' Anonimo Fiorentino* there is told a quick retort of Dante's which has every savor of actuality about it.²

"Belacqua was a citizen of Florence, an artisan and manufacturer of necks of lutes and guitars, and he was the laziest man that ever was. The story is told of him that he would come to his shop in the morning and sit down and never get up, except when he wanted to go to dinner or to bed. Now Dante Alighieri was an intimate acquaintance of his and he used to chide him severely for his indolence. And so, one day when he was thus chiding him, Belacqua answered in the words of Aristotle, 'Sedendo et quiescendo anima efficitur sapiens.' To which Dante replied, 'Assuredly, if a man grows wise by sitting still, no man was ever wiser than you.'" Benvenuto in his comment³ on the same passage (*Purg.* IV, 97 ff.) tells us that Dante frequented his shop because of his fondness for music, "for Belacqua sometimes played." Outside of a translation by Serravalle in his commentary,⁴ it is not found elsewhere.

From the pen of Franco Sacchetti, that merry bourgeois of Florence whose *Trecento Novelle* belong in style and artistic polish to a period between the *Novelle Antiche* and the *Decameron*, though they were not written till late in the fourteenth century, we have several stories of Dante which accord with the conception of him which we have been illustrating. The first⁵ presents Dante in a part in which we have not thus far found him.

"There was at one time in the city of Genoa, a learned citizen, right well versed in sundry branches of learning; and in person he was small and passing spare. Moreover he was deeply in love with a fair lady of Genoa, who, either because of his spare frame or from her own high

¹ Cf. Thomas Wright, *A Selection of Latin Stories from MSS. of the 13th and 14th Centuries*, London, 1842, No. CXXVIII, p. 122. (Quoted by Köhler.)

² Ed. cit., II, 74 (on *Purg.* IV, 97 ff.); also in Papanti, p. 45, and Zambrini, *Libro di Novelle Antiche*, ed. cit., No. LXIX, p. 82.

³ Ed. cit., III, 133.

⁴ Ed. cit., p. 474.

⁵ Ed. O. Gigli, Florence, 1888, No. 8, p. 23; also in Papanti, pp. 51-53.

sense of honor or for some other reason, far from loving him, never even turned her eyes on him but rather, to avoid him, would turn them in the opposite direction. Wherefore, despairing of success in this love and hearing of the great renown of Dante Alighieri, and how he dwelt in Ravenna, he minded him to go thither to see him and to become acquainted with him, desiring to secure from him aid or advice, how he might win the lady's love or at least how he might move her to be less hostile to his suit. And so he set forth and came to Ravenna, where after a season he succeeded in obtaining an invitation to a dinner at which Dante was a guest. As they sat at table not far from each other, the Genoese seeing his opportunity said,

"Messer Dante, I have heard much of your ability and of the renown which is current about you. May I ask you for your advice?"

"Dante replied, 'Provided that I can give it.'

"Then the Genoese said:—

"I have loved, and still love, a lady with all the loyalty that love demands. Never have I been rewarded by her,—not to mention with her love,—but even with a single glance.'

"Dante, hearing these words and observing his spare appearance, said: 'Messere, willingly would I do anything which would give you pleasure, and touching the matter with regard to which you ask me at this present, I see only one course; that is this: you know that ladies with child always crave strange things and therefore it is necessary that the lady whom you love so dearly be brought to bed with child. If she were with child,—even as it often happens that they have a longing for unusual things,—so it might come to pass that she have a longing for you. In this wise you would be able to fulfill your desire; otherwise it would be impossible.'

"The Genoese, realizing that he was stung, said: 'Messer Dante, you have advised me two things which are more improbable than the original; for it is improbable that the lady be brought to bed with child, inasmuch as this has never yet happened, and if it should happen, it would be far more improbable, considering the divers manners of things which they desire, that she should chance to desire me. But, God knows, no other reply was becoming to my question than that which you have made me.'

"Thus did the Genoese come to understand himself, for Dante had better understood what sort of man he was, than he himself. In truth,

he was of such a sort that well-nigh any lady would have shunned him. And he came to have such acquaintance with Dante that for many days he tarried in his house, dwelling with him in the greatest intimacy. This Genoese was a man of learning but he was not destined to be a philosopher — of the sort we have to-day; inasmuch as philosophy knows all things naturally. And if a man knows not himself first of all, how shall he ever know that which is outside of him? This man had he looked upon himself, be it in the mirror of the mind or in one of matter, would have divined what was his frame and have realized that a fair lady, even though she be chaste, desires that he who loves her shall have the form of a man and not of a bat. But it seems that to most men may be applied the proverb: 'There is no deceit worse than self-deceit.'"

The theme of this story is made the subject of an anecdote, recorded in the *Faccie e Motti*,¹ about one Zanobi di Raphaello Acciaiuolo, who was enamored of a certain Maria di Girolamo Moregli and was put to shame by the same counsel; and the general vagueness of the background is a further reason for making it almost certain that this is another of the perennial stories transplanted to new surroundings.

There is another story of Dante as the purveyor of advice to the love-lorn which I will quote here, although its spirit is quite alien to that of the other tales.

"Aldrovandino Donati, a young man of about Dante's age, once asked him how he might subject to his will the lady whom he loved and for whose sake he had in vain devoted himself to verses of love. Dante answered, 'Do you know, Aldrovandin, my friend, why the nightingale, whose song is sweeter than that of any other bird, spends part of the year pouring out his soft tones day and night, and the rest, is silent?' When Aldrovandino said he did not know, Dante continued, 'So long as he loves, he sings; and as soon as he can satisfy the love for which he lifted such melody to heaven, he ceases every sweet sound. Wherefore, if you are become as virtuous as you say, by virtue of the lady who is so dear to you, to bring her to your will without human virtue — even as the nightingale which is only a bird — would be to nullify all the worth whence so much praise comes to you.'"

¹ Ed. cit., No. 53, p. 46. (I believe no one has cited this parallel.)

First published in 1882 by Pedrazzoli,¹ the tale was said by him to be drawn from a Trecento manuscript containing three anecdotes from Dante. However, I find it also related in the *Life of Dante* by Filelfo² toward the end of the fifteenth century, together with some remarks on morals to show that Dante was so continent that he never burned with love for any woman. The fact that it is so strikingly different from the other tales of Dante which appear in the first centuries — and this is also true of one of the other tales found in the same manuscript — inclines me to believe that the date has been erroneously assigned and that it is only a translation of Filelfo. And Filelfo, we know, would not have scrupled to invent a new deluge, if it had been necessary to prove his point.

Two of Sacchetti's tales are variations of one and the same motive — a motive, too, which we shall see has amused many nations.³

"That most excellent poet in the vulgar tongue, whose fame will never die, Dante Alighieri of Florence, lived in Florence not far from the Adimari family, one of whom, a young man, got into trouble through some misdoing or other, and was like to be sentenced to punishment by one of the magistrates. As the magistrate was a friend of Dante's, the young man begged the latter to intercede in his favor, which Dante readily consented to do. After dinner Dante went out from his house and started on his way to fulfill his promise. As he passed by the Porta San Piero, a blacksmith was hammering iron on his anvil, and at the same time bawling out some of Dante's verses, leaving out lines here and there, and putting in lines of his own, which seemed to Dante a most monstrous outrage. Without saying a word he went up to the blacksmith's forge, where were kept all the tools he used to ply his trade, and seizing the hammer flung it into the street; then he took the tongs and flung them after the hammer and the scales after the tongs; and did the same with a number of the other tools. The blacksmith, turning around to him with a coarse gesture, said: 'What the devil are you doing? are you mad?' Dante replied: 'What are you doing?' 'I am about my business,' said the smith, 'and you are spoiling my tools by

¹ *Tre motti inediti di Dante (per le nozze Montecchi-Boselli)*, Mantua, 1882.

² In Solerti, p. 175.

³ *Novelle*, ed. cit., CXIV, pp. 274 ff.; also in Papanti, pp. 53 ff. The translation is Dr. Toynbee's, in his *Dante*, pp. 180-183.

throwing them into the street.' Dante retorted: 'If you do not want me to spoil your things, do not you spoil mine.' The smith replied, 'And what of yours am I spoiling?' Dante said, 'You sing out of my book and you do not give the words as I wrote them. That is my business and you are spoiling it for me.' The blacksmith, bursting with rage, but not knowing what to answer, picked up his things and went back to work. And the next time he wanted to sing, he sang of *Tristram and Lancelot* and let Dante's book alone.

"Dante meanwhile pursued his way to the magistrate; and when he was come to his house and bethought himself that this Adimari was a haughty young man, and behaved with scant courtesy when he went about in the city, especially when he was on horseback (for he used to ride with his legs so wide apart that if the street happened to be narrow he took up the whole of it, forcing every passer-by to brush against the points of his boots—a manner of behavior which greatly displeased Dante, who was very observant), Dante said to the magistrate: 'You have before your court such a young man for such an offence; I recommend him to your favor, though his behavior is such that he deserves to be the more severely punished, for, to my mind, usurping the property of the commonwealth is a very serious crime.' Dante did not speak to deaf ears. The magistrate asked what property of the commonwealth the young man had usurped. Dante answered: 'When he rides through the city he sits on his horse with his legs so wide apart that whoever meets him is obliged to turn back and is prevented from going on his way.' The magistrate said: 'Do you regard this as a joke? It is a more serious offence than the other.' Dante replied: 'Well, you see, I am his neighbor, and recommend him to you.' And he returned to his house, where the young man asked him how the matter stood. Dante said: 'He gave me a favorable answer.' A few days afterward the young man was summoned before the court to answer the charge against him. After the first charge had been read, the judge had the second read also, as to his riding with his legs wide-spread. The young man, perceiving that his penalty would be doubled, said to himself: 'I have made a fine bargain. Instead of being let off through the intervention of Dante, I shall now be sentenced on two counts.' So returning home he went to Dante and said: 'Upon my word, you have served me well! Before you went to the magistrate he had a mind to sentence me on one count; since you

went he is like to sentence me on two,' and in great fury he turned to Dante and said: 'If I am sentenced I shall be able to pay, and sooner or later I will pay out the person who got me sentenced.' Dante replied: 'I did my best for you, and could not have done more if you had been my own son. It is not my fault if the magistrate does not do as you wish.' The young man, shaking his head, returned home, and a few days afterwards was fined a thousand lire for the first offence, and another thousand for riding with his legs wide-spread—a thing he never ceased to resent, both he and all the rest of the Adimari. And this was the principal reason why, not long after, Dante was expelled from Florence as a member of the White party, and eventually died in exile at Ravenna, to the lasting shame of his native city."

Early in the third century of our era, when scholarship was beginning to sink to the age of commentaries and compendiums, Diogenes Laërtius gathered together a formidable array of facts in his *Lives of Famous Philosophers*, and there, in his life of Arcesilaus, he briefly states the theme of this story.¹ The original protagonist was Philoxenus of Alexandria and he, "having overheard some brickmakers singing his songs badly, trampled on their bricks, saying, 'As you ruin my property, so I yours'" (*ὡς ὑμεῖς τὰ ἐμὰ διαφθείρετε, οὕτω καὶ γὰρ τὰ ὑμέτερα*). Once more, in the first part of the fourteenth century, it turns up, this time in the *Libro del cauallero et del escudero*² of Don Juan Manuel, where the angry versifier is a *cauallero de Perpinnan* and the unwitting victim is a cobbler. Papanti also calls attention³ to the fact that since Dante's time it has been told of Ariosto—the best natured of men—by Blanchard in his *Plutarque de la jeunesse*.

If the first part of the anecdote is only an adaptation of a time-worn "chestnut," the latter part records an event for which there is some degree of probability. Balbo, in his *Vita di Dante*,⁴ was the first, I believe, to suggest that the young man of the Adimari family may have been Filippo Argenti, "il fiorentino spirito bizzarro," who, we have seen before, was treated with such bitter scorn by Dante. The early

¹ Ed. Cobet, Paris, 1850 (*Scriptorum Graecorum Bibliotheca*), Bk. IV, chap. 6, p. 102.

² Ed. S. Gräfenberg, *Romanische Forschungen*, VII (1891-1893), pp. 443-444; also in J. D. M. Ford, *Old Spanish Readings*, Boston, 1906, pp. 52-53.

³ P. 62.

⁴ Ed. cit., p. 188.

commentators¹ on the passage in the *Inferno* (VIII, 32), almost without exception, state that Filippo was one of the Adimari, and Boccaccio² has an explanation of his nickname "Argenti." "This Filippo Argenti," he says, "was very rich, so that sometimes he had his horse shod with silver (*d'ariento*) and from this was taken his nickname. He was a man of huge frame, dark-skinned and sinewy and of marvelous strength and exceedingly wrathful."³ This picture certainly accords closely with Sacchetti's and, although the latter's closing words about the cause of Dante's exile are far-fetched, this ill feeling between the two would offer a not unreasonable explanation for the almost personal venom which Dante displays toward him in their brief colloquy on the Styx.⁴

The other story of Sacchetti's makes a donkey-driver the object of Dante's ire.⁵

"On another occasion, as Dante was walking through the streets of Florence on no particular errand, and, according to the custom of the day, was wearing a gorget and arm-piece, he met a donkey-driver whose donkeys were loaded with refuse. As he walked behind the donkeys, the driver sang some of Dante's verses, and after every two or three lines he would beat one of the donkeys and cry out: 'Arri!' ('Get-up'). Dante going up to him gave him a great thump on the back with his arm-piece and said: 'That *arri* was not put in by me.' The driver not knowing who Dante was, nor why he had struck him, only beat his donkeys the more, and again cried out, 'Arri!' But when he had got a little way off, he turned around and put out his tongue at Dante and 'made the fig' with his hand saying, 'Take that!'⁶ Dante seeing this, said to him: 'I would not give one word of mine for a hundred of yours.'

¹ Cf. Scartazzini's edition of the *Divina Commedia*, pp. 71-72.

² *Comento*, II, 150.

³ Cf. *Decameron*, IX, 8 (Florence, 1904, II, 323 ff.), where Filippo is described as "uomo grande e nerboruto e forte, sdegnoso, iracundo e bizzarro più che altro."

⁴ For further discussion cf. A. Bartolini, *Studi Danteschi*, Siena, 1889, I, 97-108, and G. Federzoni, *Studi e Diporti Danteschi*, Bologna, 1902, pp. 337 ff.

⁵ *Novelle*, ed. cit., CXV, pp. 276-277; also in Papanti, pp. 57-58. Toynbee's translation.

⁶ Papanti points out (p. 64) that this gesture and retort are found in the *Novelle Antiche* (ed. cit., p. 229), told of a certain Messer Beriuolo and a lackey. One thinks, too, of Vanni Fucci, defiant under his torment, like Beëlzebub:

"Le mani alzò con ambedue le fiche,
Gridando: 'Togli, Iddio, chè a te le squadro.'"

(*Inf.* XXV, 2-3)

Oh! gentle words, worthy of a philosopher! Most people would have run after the donkey-driver with threats and abuse; or would have thrown stones at him. But the wise poet confounded the donkey-driver, and at the same time won the commendation of every one who had witnessed what took place."

Quite as ancient as the tales of the poet and the unhappy singer is one which appears in a new garb in the *Novelle* of Giovanni Sercambi of Lucca.¹

"In the days when King Robert of Naples was still alive, Dante, the poet of Florence, having been forbidden to live in his native city or anywhere within the States of the Church, took refuge sometimes with the Della Scala family at Verona, and sometimes with the Lord of Mantua, but oftenest with the Duke of Lucca, namely Messer Castruccio Castracani. And inasmuch as the fame of the said Dante's wisdom had been noised abroad, King Robert was desirous of having him at his court, in order that he might judge of his wisdom and virtue; wherefore he sent letters to the Duke, and likewise to Dante, begging him to consent to come. And Dante having decided to go to King Robert's court, set out from Lucca and made his way to Naples, where he arrived, dressed, as poets mostly are, in somewhat shabby garments. When his arrival was announced to King Robert, he was sent for by the King; and it was just the hour of dinner as Dante entered the room where the King was. After hands had been washed and places taken at table, the King sitting at his own table and the barons at theirs, at the last Dante was placed in the lowest seat of all. Dante, being a wise man, saw at once how little sense the King showed. Nevertheless, being hungry, he ate, and after he had eaten, he, without waiting, took his departure, and set out towards Ancona on his way back to Tuscany. When King Robert had dined, and rested somewhat, he inquired what had become of Dante, and was informed that he had left and was on his way towards Ancona. The King, knowing that he had not paid Dante the honor which was his due, supposed that he was indignant on that account and said to himself: 'I have done wrong: after sending for him, I ought to have done him honor, and then I should have learned from him what I wanted.' He therefore without delay sent some of his own servants after him, who caught up with him before he reached Ancona. Having received the King's letter, Dante turned round and went back to Naples, and dressing

¹ Ed. A. D'Ancona, Bologna, 1871, IX, pp. 62-66; also in Papanti, pp. 65-67.

himself in a very handsome garment, presented himself before King Robert. At dinner the King placed him at the head of the first table, which was alongside of his own; and Dante, finding himself at the head of the table, resolved to make the King understand what he had done. Accordingly, when the meat and wine were served, Dante took the meat and smeared it over the breast of his dress, and the wine he smeared over his clothes in like manner. King Robert and the barons who were present, seeing this, said, 'This man must be a good-for-nothing; what does he mean by smearing the wine and gravy over his clothes?' Dante heard how they were abusing him but held his peace. Then the King, who had observed all that passed, turned to Dante and said: 'What is this that I have seen you doing? How can you, who are reputed to be so wise, indulge in such nasty habits?' Dante, who had hoped for some remark of this kind, replied: 'Your Majesty, I know that this great honor which you now show me, is paid not to me, but to my clothes; consequently I thought that my clothes ought to partake of the good things you provided. You must see that what I say is the case, for I am just as wise now, I suppose, as when I was set at the bottom of the table, because of my shabby clothes; and now that I have come back, neither more nor less wise than before, because I am well dressed, you place me at the head of the table.' King Robert, recognizing that Dante had rebuked him justly, and had spoken the truth, ordered fresh clothes to be brought for him, and Dante after changing his dress ate his dinner, delighted at having made the King see his own folly. When dinner was over, the King took Dante aside, and, making proof of his wisdom, found him to be even wiser than he had been told; wherefore King Robert paid Dante great honor and kept him at his court, in order that he might have further experience of his wisdom and virtue."

Although this anecdote is not found in classic literature, it is widely spread throughout Europe and Asia, appearing (at times in a slightly varied form) in the *De contemptu mundi*¹ of Innocent III, written between 1190 and 1198, in the so-called *Liber de Donis*² of Étienne de Bourbon (thirteenth century), and in the *Jests* of Nasr-eddin Hodja,³ a

¹ Ed. Achterfeldt, Bonn, 1855, Bk. ii, § 39, pp. 113-114; also in Papanti, p. 72.

² *Anecdotes historiques, légendes et apologues*, ed. A. Lecoy de la Marche, Paris, 1877, No. 507, p. 438.

³ *Les Plaisanteries, traduites du turc par Decourdemanche*, Paris, 1876, No. I.V, p. 48.

Turkish collection of about the fourteenth century. Since Dante's time it has been often repeated of one philosopher or another and it also appears in Sicilian folklore in the *Nuvella di Giufà*.¹

Before discussing Dante's relation to Robert of Naples, we may well quote another anecdote of Sercambi's purporting to have taken place at the same court.²

"You have heard in the preceding tale how King Robert of Naples, out of curiosity to see Dante and to gain experience of his wisdom, called him to his court. And having learned that he was wise he wished to test whether he was strong in suffering insult. He planned to provoke him by means of his buffoons; summoning six of them before him, he bade them bait Dante till he grew angry. However, he would not that they say or do anything offensive but only that they try him with jesting words. The buffoons, who are naturally quick and cunning, undertook to enrage Dante with some jests; and at the same time, they thought to vilify his learning in a decent manner. Having laid their plans, each one of them, arrayed in fair garments, entered into the presence of the King and Dante. The King, who was aware of their intention, taking Dante by the hand, walked up and down the room with him, questioning him anon, until the buffoons, approaching the King, said: 'Your Majesty, we marvel that you are so familiar with this prelate who seems to be a man of small worth.' The King said: 'What! Do you not know that he is the wisest man in Italy?' The buffoons said: 'Tell us how that is. Is he Solomon?' 'He is Dante,' answered the King. 'Well, well!' said one of the buffoons. 'Who would have thought it! He looks like one of those low fellows from Florence and I am not sure that he is wise enough to know that the Arno flows backward so that little fish may be caught at Monte Murlo.'

"Before he had stopped, the second began, 'Your Majesty, if Dante is as wise as he holds, I wish that he would tell me why a black hen lays a white egg.'

"'How well you have spoken, comrade,' said the third, 'for if Dante is the wise man he pretends to be, when he has answered your question, he will tell me why the ass lays square dung from a round opening.'

¹ Cf. Laura Gonzenbach, *Sicilianische Märchen*, Leipzig, 1870, No. 37, I, 258-259; also given in T. F. Crane, *Italian Popular Tales*, Boston, 1885, p. 296.

² *Novelle*, ed. cit., No. X, p. 67; also in Papanti, pp. 67-71.

"The King stops and is tempted to laugh, but to conceal the cause from Dante he refrained. Dante, who had recognized the buffoons at first sight, saw that the King was at the bottom of it and thought how he might make reply to all the questions by a figure of speech, casting all the shame on the King.

"The fourth buffoon, hearing the subtle and profound questions, turns toward Dante and says: 'Dante, your fame flies in every direction, like feathers tossed from a tower — one going up, another down, this way and that; tell me, what do the planets do?'

"The fifth buffoon says: 'Assuredly Dante must know, having searched thoroughly within and without, how a man may serve God and the world.'

"The last one says: 'Oh King, I have heard that Dante is wise; for my part I do not believe it, inasmuch as the wise man always gains, and gaining, lives in honor, while *he* lives in shameful fashion. Therefore, realizing that each one of you has greater understanding than he, I count it unbecoming, your Majesty, that he should go thus on terms of equality with you.'

"Dante who had swallowed it all without the least sign of anger, said nothing, as though it had not been addressed to him.

"'Dante,' says King Robert, 'are you not going to answer what these men have asked and said to you?'

"'I thought that they were talking to you, Sire,' says Dante, 'and therefore I left the answer to you. But since you say that they were speaking to me, I will undertake the task of answering, although it little becomes me to speak of such matters in your presence, for it were rather fitting for such as you to make answer. But since it is your pleasure, I will answer them all — according to the content of their question. Beginning with the first, then, how the Florentines have made the Arno flow backward to catch little fish, I say, that they turned back the sea, which is water of great power, and far from catching small fish, they caught one large one and many medium-sized and smaller ones — and that was when they captured the fair castle of Prato, where the king who was lord of it was captured.'

"When King Robert heard this, he saw the truth of it and said, 'Pay me back in my own coin; I am listening.'

"Turning to the second buffoon Dante said: 'Every realm, however large it may be, as King Robert knows, pretends to be the egg of the eagle; that is, every lord should be subject to the Empire.'

" King Robert, who was an ardent Guelph, realized that he was aiming at him.

" Then to the third: 'The round,' he said, 'cannot rationally be unequally distant from the centre, but is everywhere equally distant, and anything which is transformed from the round may be said to be adulterated. Therefore, I say that the court in which there are adulterers, that is, men who are deformed from the round, that is from the realm, may be called square dung, and consequently the man who supports them may be considered an ass and not a lord.' The King, understanding these words, counted Dante to be wise, as having perceived the trick.

" Then turning to the fourth buffoon, Dante said, 'You have asked me of other things; I answer you this: that you are not capable of understanding what you ask, but a man who believes he is capable and has the desire will never care to have acquaintance with hidden things, if he consorts with buffoons like you.' King Robert, who was always desirous of knowing, saw that Dante's words were meant for him.

" The fifth buffoon was standing on tip-toe in his eagerness to hear the solution of his question. Dante said: 'I will show you how you may win Paradise and Hell; hold your head in Rome and your other end in Naples'—as much as to say, 'in Rome all things are holy; in Naples all the ladies and all the men are given over to desire and lust.' In this way, the King understood that in Naples there was not a lady nor a man who was free from the vice of lust.

" Desirous of giving his answer to all, Dante turned to the last buffoon, saying, 'If Dante found as many lunatics as you find, he would be better garbed than you, for naturally sense ought to be held in higher esteem than lunatics and buffoons.'

" At this the King said: 'Are we who keep buffoons then, lunatics?'

" 'If you love virtue,' answered Dante, 'you are mad to follow this present custom of consuming your substance on such fellows.'

" The King and the buffoons saw that Dante had put them to shame, and the King turning to Dante, said: 'Now I perceive that your ability is greater than was reported,' and he told him the plan he had employed with his buffoons saying, 'Now I would have you remain in my court.' And he honored him with gifts.

" In this wise did Dante out-wit the buffoons and bring the King to a better understanding."

To speak truth, Sercambi has not greatly enhanced our esteem of Dante by this tale; the answers are badly strained — sometimes so far as to break with sense. But it is reminiscent of the discussion in Paris of which Boccaccio told,¹ with its fourteen propositions and refutations. As for Dante's having been at the court of Robert, there is absolutely no reason for thinking that there is any truth in the statement of Sercambi. Filelfo does say² that one of Dante's embassies took him "ad regem Parthenopæum"; but this could not have been Robert, who did not receive the crown until 1309, and for that matter, Filelfo is negligible as far as the truth is concerned. Furthermore, it is hardly within the realm of the probable that Dante would have accepted an invitation from the king whose representative as governor of Florence renewed the decree of exile against him in 1315,³ although he refers to him without bitterness in the *Paradiso* (VIII, 76 ff.). On the whole, it looks as though Sercambi was prompted by a desire to portray the great Ghibelline outwitting a famous Guelph and at the same time to heap a little general abuse on Naples and the Neapolitans — a manifestation of local pride and spirit which we have observed before and which has always been prevalent among the Italian *novellieri*.

In his lively, though vulgar, collection of strange events and cute sayings, the *Facetiae*, Poggio Bracciolini has left us three anecdotes of Dante. One⁴ — that of the "birds of a feather" — we have already discussed; the other two supplement the conception of Dante which informs the tales we have already cited.

"Once at a dinner with the elder and the younger Cane della Scala, the servants of both the lords, with a view to provoking Dante, covertly placed all the bones at his feet. When the table was removed the whole company turned toward Dante in wonder that the bones should be seen only before him. With his usual readiness in retort, he said: 'It is not at all strange if the dogs (*Canes*) ate their bones; but I am not a dog.'"⁵

Here again is a venerable old story, rejuvenated to apply to Dante. A wag at the court of Ptolemy Euergetes — one Tryphon by name — plays the same trick on Hyrcanus, according to the story told by Flavius Josephus⁶ in his *Jewish Antiquities*, and Hyrcanus retorts: "Oh

¹ Cf. p. 32. ² In Solerti, p. 184. ³ Cf. Carpenter, *Documents*, No. XI, pp. 51-53.

⁴ Cf. pp. 40-42.

⁵ *Facetiae*, ed. cit., p. 67; also in Papanti, p. 92.

⁶ *Opera omnia*, ed. Bekker, Leipzig, 1856, III, 92 (*Antiquities*, XII, 4. 9).

King, dogs are wont to eat the bones with the meat even as these fellows, but men eat the meat" (εἰκότως ὡ δέσποτα τοὺς μὲν γὰρ κύνες τὰ ὀστᾶ σὺν τοῖς κρέασι κατεσθίειν ὥσπερ οὗτοι . . . οἱ δ' ἄνθρωποι τὸ κρέας ἐσθίουσι). In the Middle Ages the tale is told of two buffoons in the *Disciplina Clericalis*¹ of Petrus Alfonsus and in two early verse redactions in French called "Le chastoïement d'un père à son fils" under the caption *De deus jugleors*. In the popular tradition it is found in the fabliau of *Les deux parasites*. Papanti quotes an analogous tale from the popular Persian stock:

"A King was eating dates along with his Wuzeer, and flung all the stones near the latter. When they had done, the King said to the Wuzeer, 'Thou art a great glutton, to have such a number of date stones before thee.' The Wuzeer answered, 'No, the Asylum of the World has a voracious appetite, having left neither dates nor stones.'"

Poggio's version was several times imitated by later Italian tale-tellers and one, Lodovico Carbone,² naïvely suggests how the story came to be told, for his account ends, "And this he said because his host's name was *Cane* (dog)." The rest of the story is easily built with this foundation.

The other story of Poggio's illustrates a further characteristic of Dante.³

"When our poet Dante was an exile in Siena, he was standing one day in the Church of the Frati Minori with his elbows on an altar, buried in thought of some secret matter. A troublesome fellow came up to ask a question. Dante said: 'Tell me, what is the greatest of all the brutes?' 'Why, the elephant!' said he. 'Elephant,' said Dante, 'leave me alone and do not annoy me, for my mind is busy with matters of more import than your chatter.'"

Aside from the references we have already made to Dante's habit of burying himself in his own thoughts, we have the testimony of Boccaccio,⁴ who says: "He delighted to be alone and far removed from all folk, that his contemplations might not be broken in upon; and if some thought that pleased him well should come to him when in company, howsoever he should be questioned about aught, he would answer his questioner

¹ These tales are all recorded in Papanti, pp. 168-172.

² Ed. cit., No. LXX, p. 50. This and others may be found in Papanti, pp. 112, 139, and 166.

³ *Facetiae*, ed. cit., p. 129; also in Papanti, pp. 92-93. For imitations, see Papanti, pp. 129, 148, and 177.

⁴ *Vita*, p. 45.

never a word until he had either accepted or rejected this his imagination. And many times this chanced to him as he sat at table, or was journeying with companions and elsewhere too, when questioned." In a later anecdote¹ we shall see a charge of heresy brought against him, as a result of this abstraction.

There are several short *motti* attributed to Dante which should be placed among the anecdotes which bring into prominence his sharpness of speech.

From an anonymous pen² we have this boorish reply.

"A peasant, whom Dante asked what time it was, answered: 'It is time to water the cattle' (*bestie*). Dante retorted: 'What are you doing, then?'"

Filelfo tells us:³

"When Gieri del Bello once asked Dante who was the wisest man in the city, he received this answer: 'It is he who is most hated by the fools.'"

And again, to demonstrate his readiness in repartee, he spins this yarn:⁴

"When someone objected that Florence was being badly governed, inasmuch as it was suffering from a famine, while Siena was enjoying a season of plenty, he said, 'Perhaps corn is cheaper at Cortona too,' meaning that Florence was so great and so wealthy that things could not be so cheap there as in rural districts where there is a dearth of money."

It is hardly conceivable that so extensive a body of stories, all of which are expressions of the same characteristic, should have grown up in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries apart from a popular tradition. We have an additional proof of the existence of such a tradition in the fact that such of the stories as are repeated show slight variations in treatment or expression — a condition not likely to appear unless they had been told from hearsay. There are, too, some signs of that popular exaggeration which verges on the legend. The Dante who lived in the memory of the men and women of the Trecento and Quattrocento was not the trembling lover of Beatrice, but the proud figure who sounded the depths of the *Inferno*, the *alma sdegnosa*.

¹ Cf. p. 68.

² *Faccie e Motti*, ed. cit., No. 148, p. 94; also in Papanti, p. 89.

³ In Solerti, p. 175; also in Pedrazzoli, *Tre Motti di Dante*, ed. cit.

⁴ In Solerti, p. 175.

CHAPTER IV

DANTE'S SIN

Of a very different type is the tradition which appears not long after Dante's death, bringing against him the charge of licentiousness. In the *Vita* of Boccaccio we have this general statement: ¹ "Amid all the virtue, amid all the knowledge that hath been shown above to have belonged to this wondrous poet, lechery found most ample place not only in the years of his youth, but also of his maturity; the which vice, though it be natural, and common, and scarce to be avoided, yet in truth is so far from being commendable that it cannot be suitably excused." The *Compendio* is more explicit; ² having told of Dante's love for Beatrice, the story continues: "Nor was this the only love with which our poet burned, but he was rather greatly subject to this passion. We find that in his more mature years he often sighed for other women and, especially after his exile during his stay in Lucca, for a maiden whom he names Pargoletta; and furthermore toward the end of his life in the mountains of the Casentino for a mountain girl, who—if I am not falsely informed—although fair in countenance, had a goitre. And for one or the other of these he wrote full many praiseworthy works in rhyme."

Serravalle, who derives most of the contents of his *Preambula* from Boccaccio, repeats ³ the statement about the maid of Lucca named Pargoletta (*philocaptus in Luca de una alia puella, nomine Pargoletta*), and Manetti, deriving his matter, as usual, from the *Vita* not the *Compendio*, makes the general charge ⁴ (*Lascivis aliquantulum amoribus obnoxium plus indulsisse visus est quam viro philosopho convenire videretur*), going on to remark that Socrates had been accused of the same offense. In his comment on Beatrice's reproof of Dante, the author of the *Ottimo Comento* lists certain of Dante's loves; ⁵ "Beatrice says that neither the maiden whom in his verses he called Pargoletta nor that Lisetta nor that

¹ *Vita*, pp. 61-62.

³ Ed. cit., p. 15.

² *Compendio*, p. 17.

⁴ In Solerti, pp. 140-141.

⁵ *Ottimo Comento*, ed. Accademici della Crusca, Pisa, 1827-1829, II, 549.

other mountain maid nor any other ought to have weighed downward the feathers of his wings."

Even more atrocious are the villanies charged to his account by some of the early commentators. Pietro Alighieri has two passages of this sort: one¹ as an explanation of the *corda* which Dante ungirds to lower to Geryon, "verum quia fraudem solum commiserat circa deceptiones mulierum, ideo fingit in chordula, hoc est quia zona luxuria figuratur"; the other² in his comment on Pyramus and Thisbe (*Purg.* XXVII, 37 ff.), "nota auctorem in hoc vitio [defloratione virginum] fuisse multum implicitum." All of the early commentators agree with Pietro in calling the *corda* the symbol of Dante's deceit of women.³ There is also a somewhat related statement in the *Liber de Theleutologio*, where, under the subject of "Luxuria et ejus effectibus," the author says,⁴ "Haec illa est quae Dantem Alagherii . . . adulterinis amplexibus venenavit."

In beginning I remarked that this tradition was of a very different sort from that which recalled his disdainful spirit. This is apparent in several respects. In the first place, that it was not a universally accepted belief is evidenced by Bruni's definite contradiction:⁵ "He consorted in his youth with amorous swains and was himself too engaged in the passion, not by way of wantonness but in gentleness of heart." Filelfo's defense⁶ we must discard on principle. Moreover, all of the specific charges made are based on Dante's own works. So, the reference to Gentucca by Bonagiunta da Lucca,

" 'Femmina è nata, e non porta ancor benda,'
Cominciò ei, 'che ti farà piacere
La mia città, come ch' uom la repretta, ' "

immediately following the words

" — e non so che 'Gentucca'
Sentiva io là,"

(*Purg.* XXIV, 37-38)

¹ *Commentarium*, ed. V. Nannucci, Florence, 1846, p. 180.

² *Op. cit.*, p. 489.

³ Cf. Scartazzini, *Commedia*, p. 155.

⁴ In Solerti, p. 30, n. 1. N. Zingarelli, in *La Data del Teleutologio* (*Studi di Letteratura Italiana*, I, 180 ff.), suggests that this phrase had best be taken metaphorically as referring to *luxuria*.

⁵ In Solerti, p. 104.

⁶ In Solerti, p. 163.

combined with the reference to a "Pargoletta" by Beatrice (*Purg.* XXXI, 59), was certainly the source of Boccaccio's statement in the *Compendio*. The "mountain maid" is, of course, drawn from the famous canzone "Amor, dacchè convien pur ch'io mi doglia" (XI), and "Lisetta," named in the *Ottimo*, is apparently from the sonnet "Per quella via che la bellezza corre" (XLIV).

Probably Beatrice's reproof and Dante's confession of error are the principal source for all of these statements. It is outside the province of this study to enter into a discussion of the true meaning of the passage,¹ which has so long vexed commentators and interpreters. From those who understand his faithlessness to have been only his devotion to poetry or philosophy to those who would have it refer to one sin or other of the flesh, there is a far cry. Whatever may have been Dante's meaning, Boccaccio and certain other writers of the years immediately after Dante's death, interpreted it in its sensual aspect. I have been inclined to believe that Boccaccio was led to accept this interpretation the more readily because he found in the "Life" of Virgil, prefixed to the Commentary of Donatus, a statement² that Virgil was "libidinis in pueros prunior." There can be little doubt that Boccaccio was familiar with this "Life"; his own story of the dream of Dante's mother, of which we shall speak later,³ is apparently an imitation of that told of Virgil's mother in this same work. Finding, then, that lust was charged to Virgil, he naturally would be less moved to scruple to attribute a similar sin to his confessed pupil.

In the tradition outside of men of letters this conception of Dante never gained any hold in Italy. There is not a single reference to it in the anecdotic literature of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and after that time the few tales which do reflect on Dante's reputation — scabrous colloquies with prostitutes for the most part — are rather signs of the general literary degeneracy of the times than evidence of any popular belief that they accorded with Dante.

¹ Kraus, *Dante*, pp. 147-151, has a thorough discussion.

² Cf. Nettleship, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

³ Cf. pp. 76-79.

CHAPTER V

DANTE AND THE CLERGY

" Questi fur cherchi, che non han coperchio
Piloso al capo, e Papi e Cardinali — "

Virgil tells Dante, as they pass a tonsured group, pushing weights by force of chest in the Circle of the Avaricious, and tradition, prompted by his daring here and by his frequent invectives against the clergy who were still alive, — for the average man is always a bit gratified at the discomfiture of those in authority, — invented some tales of his own personal experience. So we hear from Benvenuto da Imola: ¹

" At a dinner in Verona an inquisitive fellow asked him, ' How is it learned sir, that a man who has once been shipwrecked goes to sea again, that a woman who has borne a child is willing to conceive again, that so many thousands of poor men do not swallow up the few rich ? ' Dante, fearing lest he be charged with error by the less intelligent guests, wisely avoided offering a solution and answered: ' Add this: why do princes and kings of the earth reverently kiss the foot of the son of a washer-woman or a barber, when he has been made Pope ? ' "

The story is nowhere else told and, in point of fact, has its answer in at least two passages of the *Divina Commedia*, which reveal how deep was his respect for the papal authority. To Nicholas III he cries:

" E se non fosse, che ancor lo mi vieta
La riverenza delle somme chiavi,
Che tu tenesti nella vita lieta,
I' userei parole ancor più gravi,"
(*Inf.* XIX, 100-103)

and in answer to Hadrian V's question as to why he kneeled, he says:

" Per vostra dignitate
Mia coscienza dritto mi rimorse."
(*Purg.* XIX, 131-132)

But the story is typical of Dante's attitude toward the popes as men.

¹ Ed. cit., III, 514 (on *Purg.* XIX, 127); also in Papanti, p. 38.

The unmasking of a Franciscan friar through Dante's penetration is the theme of a tale found in a Trecento manuscript in the Biblioteca Riccardiana.¹

"While Dante was staying at the court of a certain lord on terms of the greatest intimacy, he noticed that a Franciscan friar, an excellent Christian and a man of parts, withal, who enjoyed a great reputation for spiritual living, frequented the court and often went to visit the gentleman's wife, frequently remaining alone with her in her apartments, with the door locked. Dante, deeming that this intimacy was not wholly honorable, out of love for his host could not refrain from telling him frankly of the affair. The husband told him that the friar was looked upon almost as a saint. Thereupon Dante returned to him on the following day, and on that very day and at that very hour the friar arrived and after a short stay with the gentleman went to visit the lady. When the friar had departed, Dante seeing when he had gone, approached his host and gave him these four verses, which induced the said gentleman to order, to his honor, that henceforth the said friar should not go to visit his wife without him. And he had the verses written in many places in his palace. The verses are as follows:

" Chi nella pelle d' un monton fasciasse
 Un lupo, e fra le pecore 'l mettesse,
 Dimmi, cre' tu, perchè monton paresse,
 Ched ei però le pecore salvasse? "

The quatrain about which this story has been built has had a complicated history. First published together with the anecdote by Lami² in 1756, it was reprinted alone as Dante's composition in Trucchi's³ *Poesie italiane* in 1846. In the latter edition there is also printed a mutilated sonnet of which this is the first quatrain. Viani, publishing an edition of the *Rime*⁴ of Bindo Bonichi, a didactic Siennese poet of the early fourteenth century, in 1867, on the authority of a Laurentian manuscript which gives the sonnet complete, restored it to Bindo, the more readily,

¹ Papanti, pp. 40-41; also in Zambrini, *Libro di Novelle Antiche*, ed. cit., No. XIII, p. 34.

² *Catalogus codicum manuscriptorum*, p. 22.

³ *Poesie italiane inedite*, Prato, 1846, I, 296.

⁴ *Rime*, ed. P. Viani, Bologna, 1867 (*Curiosità letteraria*, LXXXII), Sonnet XX, p. 184, and note on pp. 150-151.

as he says, "because Bonichi's muse was accustomed to find delight in heaping scorn on the clergy of his time, as may be seen in his sonnets." Bindo's version runs:

" Chi nella pelle d' un monton fasciasse
 Un lupo, e tra le pecore 'l mettesse,
 Dimmi, cre' tu, perchè monton paresse,
 Ched' e' perciò le pecore servasse?
 O delle carni lor e' non mangiasse,
 Come più tosto giugner le potesse,
 Purchè 'l pastore non se n' accorgesse,
 Qualunque e l' una non la divorasse?
 Io prego ognun, che del guardar s' ammanni
 Da questi cota' frati ripentuti,
 Che ad ingannare altrui portan gli panni.
 Giuroti in fede mia, se Dio m' aiuti,
 Che la lor santità è pur d' inganni,
 E di ciò molti esempi n' ho veduti."

Two French scholars¹ had already pointed out that the quatrain is a rough translation of a speech of Faux-semblant in the *Roman de la Rose*:²

" Qui de la toison dan Belin,
 En leu de mantel sebelin
 Sire Ysangrin afubleroit,
 Li leu qui mouton sembleroit,
 S'il o les brebis demorast,
 Cuidiés vous qu'il nes devorast? "

and the rest of the sonnet of Bindo Bonichi is a free version of the following lines in the *Roman*. When Castets published an unedited manuscript in 1881, containing a series of sonnets called *Il Fiore*,³ by one Durante, which was frankly a version of the *Roman de la Rose*, and one of the sonnets of Falsenbiant began,

" Chi della pelle del monton fasciasse
 I[l] lupo e tralle pecore il mettesse,
 Credete voi perche monton paresse
 Che de le pecore e' non divorasse? "

¹ Th. Puymaigre, *Poètes et romanciers de la Lorraine*, Paris, 1848, p. 10; and E. J. B. Rathery, *L'influence de l'Italie sur les lettres françaises*, Paris, 1853, p. 28.

² Ed. Marteau, Orleans, 1878, III, 76, ll. 11511-11516.

³ *Il Fiore par Durante*, ed. F. Castets, Montpellier, 1881, Sonnet XCVII. Cf. note, pp. 153-155.

the whole question of the authorship of the *Fiore* was made to hang on the other quatrain. Not to enter at length into the various arguments,¹ it seems unlikely that the *Fiore* is Dante's work and still more improbable that the isolated quatrain is from his hand. Possibly Bonichi's sonnet was mutilated by some cleric who desired to destroy the allusion to the fraternity and in its truncated form gave rise to the tale we have quoted. The belief that Dante was the author may have been facilitated by similar figures used by Dante himself in referring to the clergy in such passages as,

" il maladetto fiore
Ch' ha disviate le pecore e gli agni,
Perocchè fatto ha lupo del pastore,"

(Par. IX, 130-132)

or

" In vesta di pastor lupi rapaci
Si veggion di quassù per tutti i paschi."

(Par. XXVII, 55-56)

Troya² tells us that the lord at whose court the incident took place was Guido Salvatico di Casentino, and the lady, the Countess Caterina, his wife, a statement for which Trucchi quotes³ a manuscript as authority, but the whole account is probably the invention of some well-meaning commentator who desired to explain the genesis of this isolated verse and was conscious that Dante had little love for the representatives of the Church, outside of their spiritual capacity.

His frequent invectives against both popes and prelates need not be discussed here; they form a thread which runs through all of his works. Carducci remarks⁴ that this Voltairian characteristic was one of the chief causes of the charge of heresy which was brought against him after his death. According to Boccaccio,⁵ the *De Monarchia* was the cause of the accusation and he even says that Dante's remains were in jeopardy. The anecdote is worth repeating.

¹ Cf. G. Mazzoni, *Se possa Il Fiore essere di Dante Alighieri (Raccolta di studij critici dedicata ad A. D'Ancona)*, Florence, 1901, pp. 657 ff., and F. D'Ovidio, *Se possa Il Fiore essere di Dante Alighieri (Nuovi studii danteschi)*, Milan, 1907, pp. 567 ff.

² *Del Veltro Allegorico*, ed. cit., p. 73.

³ *Poesie italiane*, I, 296.

⁴ *Della varia fortuna di Dante (Studi letterari)*, Livorno, 1880, p. 277.

⁵ *Vita*, p. 73.

"This book was condemned several years after the author's death by Messer Beltrando, Cardinal of Poggetto, and papal legate in the parts of Lombardy; Pope John XXII being in the Chair. And the reason was because Lewis, Duke of Bavaria, chosen King of the Romans by the electors of Germany, came to Rome for his coronation, against the pleasure of the said Pope John, and being in Rome, he made a minor friar, called brother Piero della Corvara, Pope, in violation of the ordinances of the Church, and he made many cardinals and bishops; and there he caused himself to be crowned by this Pope. And a question as to his authority rising up in many cases, he and his followers, having come upon this book, began to make use of many of the arguments it contained, in support of his authority and of themselves; whereupon the book, hitherto scarcely known, became very famous. But afterwards, when the said Lewis was gone back to Germany, and his followers, especially the clergy, had come to their fall and were dispersed, the said Cardinal, with none to gainsay him, seized the aforesaid book, and condemned it publicly to the flames, as containing heresies. And in like manner he was bent on dealing with the bones of the author, to the eternal infamy and confusion of his memory, had it not been opposed by a valiant and noble cavalier of Florence, by name Pino della Tosa, who was then at Bologna, where this thing was being discussed."

Outside of a statement of Bartolo de Saxoferrato, quoted in the *Life of Dante* of Domenico Bandini¹ to the effect that "It was the opinion of Dante in this *Monarchia* that the Empire was not dependent on the Church; but after his death he was well-nigh condemned for heresy on this account," we have little positive evidence of this charge in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, two works² written to refute the *De Monarchia* being the most important — one by Fra Guido Vernani, the other from St. Antonino, archbishop of Florence, who died in 1409.³

¹ In Solerti, p. 94.

² Cf. Carducci, *Della varia fortuna di Dante*, pp. 272-273.

³ It is possible that there is some allegorical significance in the fact that as Dante and Virgil enter the circle of the heretics in *Inferno*, they at first turn to the right, for the first time in their descent. My own feeling is that the most probable interpretation is that first steps toward a fuller knowledge of the truth may be right, and through some subsequent perversion they enter into the realm of error. Dr. Moore (*Early Biographers*, pp. 160-161) has discussed the question of the exclusion of the heretics from the ethical scheme of the *Inferno* and their absence from the *Purgatorio*.

There are, on the contrary, a considerable number of denials of the justice of this charge which serve as evidence of its existence. Most of these are anecdotic in form and, while rehabilitating Dante's reputation for orthodoxy, take the opportunity to describe the confusion of some cleric through his pious retort.¹ Such is a tale of Lodovico Carbone of Ferrara.²

"Dante Alighieri, the Florentine poet, was exceedingly quick in retort. Being greatly inclined to speculation and contemplation, one day while listening to mass, whether because he was absorbed in some subtle fancy or perhaps with intent to mock his enemies, he did not kneel nor remove his hood when the Host was raised. His enemies—and they were many, for he was a man of most exemplary life—straightway ran to the bishop, accusing Dante of being a heretic and of not having shown due respect for the Sacrament. The bishop summoned Messer Dante and reproving him for his behavior, asked him what he had done when the Host was elevated. 'Verily,' said Dante, 'my mind was so intent on God, that I do not remember what my body was doing, but those vile fellows whose mind and eyes were more on me than on God, can tell you, beyond doubt. And if they had had their mind on God, they would not have been watching what I was doing.' The bishop accepted his excuse and perceived that Dante was a man of wisdom because he revealed the villainy of the envious."

Similar to this is a group of stories, embodying a single idea, although couched in different terms, designed to explain the composition of the *Credo* or *Professione di Fede*. Papanti³ gives three versions and Moore⁴ has still another; one will serve as an illustration of them all.

"After the author, that is Dante, had finished and published his book, and had studied under many famous masters in theology, among others, under Minor Friars, they found in a chapter of the *Paradiso* where Dante pretends that he finds St. Francis, and that St. Francis asks him about this world and how the friars of his order fare, with regard to whom he says he is deeply surprised, since during all the time that he has been in Paradise, not one of them has ever come up nor has he

¹ On the prevalence of this habit of bringing scorn on the clergy, cf. A. Graf, *Miti, leggende e superstizioni del Medio Evo*, Turin, 1893, II, 3 (*La leggenda di un pontefice*).

² *Facezie*, ed. cit., No. LXIX, p. 49; also in Papanti, p. 110.

³ Pp. 46-49.

⁴ *Early Biographers*, pp. 158-159.

heard from them. To which Dante answers what is found in that chapter. Now all the friars of the order took great offense at this and laid a plan which was intrusted to their most famous masters, that they should study his book to see if they could find anything in it to warrant his being burned or charged with heresy. In this wise they brought action against him and accused him before the inquisitor of being a heretic who did not believe in God nor observe the articles of faith. He went before the inquisitor and since vespers were already past, he said, 'Give me respite until the morrow and I will give you in writing how I believe in God, and if I am in error, punish me as I deserve.' Thereupon the inquisitor gave him until the third hour in the morning. Dante stayed up all night and gave his answer in the same verse as that in which his book is written, as follows herewith, in which he defines all our faith and all the articles—an excellent and perfect thing for unlettered men and abounding in good and useful examples and prayers to God and to the blessed Virgin Mary—as may be seen, if you will read it. For there is no need to have nor to search other books in order to know all the articles, nor the seven deadly sins, for he defines it all so well and so clearly, that as soon as the inquisitor had read it with his council in the presence of twelve masters in theology, they knew not what to say nor allege against him. Therefore the inquisitor dismissed Dante and made sport of the friars, all of whom marveled how he had been able to write so notable a thing in so short a time."

It is interesting to note that in all of the other versions of the story the accusers are Franciscans, and in the one just quoted a reason for their animosity is given. To be sure, there is no such statement in the *Paradiso* as is there given, but there can be little doubt that the storyteller had in mind the passage in the twelfth Canto, in which St. Bonaventura brands the degeneration of the Franciscans (ll. 112-126). Perhaps some of the good friars, too, had taken offense at the affront to their founder in the victory which the black cherub won over him by his superior logic in the debate for the soul of Guido da Montefeltro (*Inf.* XXVII, 112 ff.). But there was a strong tendency to refute any such prejudiced judgment of him who was popularly called *poeta nostro*, and the *Professione di Fede* itself is only another proof of the eagerness of the following generation to demonstrate that Dante was orthodox.

A curious example of this impulse to defend Dante's name in matters religious is a prayer which he is said to have sung every hour, first printed in a Genoese calendar for 1474 entitled "La raxone de la Pasca: e de la Luna: e le Feste."¹

"Io credo in Dio, e in vita eterna spero,
In santo Spirito, e Gesù di Maria,
Si com' la Chiesa scrive, e canta il vero,
O Padre nostro! che nei cieli stia
Santificato il tuo santo Nome.
Rendiamo grazia di quel che tu sia
Da' oggi a noi la quotidiana manna,
Senza la qual per questo aspro deserto
A retro va chi più di gir s' affanna;
E come noi del mal, che abbiām sofferto,
Perdoniamo a ciascun, e tu perdona
Benigno, e non guardare al nostro merto."

Papanti has pointed out² that this is merely a rude dovetailing of some passages from the *Professione di Fede* and the *Purgatorio*. From the former we have

"Siccome santa Chiesa aperto canta "

and

(l. 24)

"O padre nostro, che ne' cieli stai,
Santificato sia sempre il tuo nome."³

(ll. 211-212)

The last six lines are taken without alteration from the Prayer of the Proud in the *Purgatorio* (XI, 13-18).

Such are some of the attempts to uphold the reputation of Dante against the attacks of the aggrieved clerics. Naturally the pendulum swings in the opposite direction in the ardor of interest until we find such a verse as this, attributed to Dante's son, Pietro:⁴

"O Signor giusto, facciamti preghiero
Che tanta iniquità deggia punire
Di que' che voglion dire
Che 'l mastro della fede fossi errante:
Se fossi spenta, rifariala Dante."

¹ In Papanti, pp. 82-84.

² Loc. cit.

³ These in turn are from "O padre nostro, che ne' cieli stai, . . . Laudato sia il tuo nome" (*Purg.* XI, 1, 4).

⁴ In Trucchi, op. cit., II, 140.

CHAPTER VI

OTHER-WORLD

I. THE APOTHEOSIS

Not only were the enthusiasts prompt to clear Dante's name from the stigma of heresy, but they soon came to see in his *Commedia* the touch of a more than mortal hand. As early as the time of Benvenuto da Imola we have evidence that the popular reader was impressed by the exceptional qualities of his work. Benvenuto, having observed that Dante from a Guelph had become a most pronounced Ghibelline, goes on,¹ "That reminds me of an amusing remark made by one of that party, who, having heard this statement made, said, 'Why, surely he could never have written such a great work if he had not become a Ghibelline.'" If Cacciaguida's advice,

"sì che a te fia bello

Averti fatta parte per te stesso,"

(*Par.* XVII, 68-69)

was not enough of a warrant to place Dante above the pride of parties in the common conception of the next generation, the charge of Beatrice,

"Ritornato di là, fa che tu scrive,

(*Purg.* XXXII, 105)

before long assumed the virtue of the divine commission which Dante certainly meant it to be.

Filippo Villani, before the end of the Trecento, writes,² "I believe that without the inspiration of the Holy Spirit, our poet could not have thought out such a sublime, profound subject, nor reached such heights with the aid of human genius alone, nor have sung so fluently in such chastened speech." Then, after advancing as a proof of this, the marvelous discovery of the last cantos, of which we shall speak presently, he concludes, "Verily by this miracle it will be apparent that the work of the poet is beyond doubt a divine production."

¹ *Comentum*, I, 339; also in Papanti, pp. 36-37.

² In Solerti, pp. 89-90.

An anecdote appended to a fourteenth century manuscript of the *Divina Commedia* will further illustrate this attitude.¹

"This famous poet, Dante, wrote a little book in Latin at the time when the Emperor, Henry of Luxembourg, was crowned in Rome (in the year 1312) by three cardinal legates of the Pope, Clement IV, which book was called, and is still called, the *Monarchia*. The book is divided into three parts, for it proposes and solves three questions or doubts." After an analysis of the book and a jibe at the clergy who have denied its value, the writer continues:

"And I would have the reader note that I, the writer, happening to be at Trapani in Sicily, visited an old man from Pisa, who had the reputation throughout all Sicily of being well versed in the *Commedia* of Dante. In our frequent discussions and conversations about the *Commedia*, this worthy man told me this story. 'I once was in Lombardy and I went to see Messer Francesco Petrarca in Milan. He, in his courteous manner, entertained me for several days. Now one day while I was with him in his study, I asked him if he had the book of Dante. Answering "Yes," he got up and after searching among his books, he found the aforementioned book called the *Monarchia* and threw it down before me. I looked at it and said that that was not what I had meant, but his *Commedia*. Then Messer Francesco was manifestly surprised that I should call the *Commedia* the work of Dante. He questioned me whether I believed that Dante had written that book. And when I said "Yes," he reprov'd me earnestly, saying that he did not see how that work could have been written by the human intellect without the particular gift of the Holy Spirit, and concluding that the *Monarchia* might properly be said to be Dante's but that the *Commedia* was the Holy Spirit's rather than Dante's. Then he added, "Tell me, for you seem concerned and versed in this *Commedia*; how do you understand the three verses which he places in the *Purgatorio* in the twenty-fourth Canto, where he represents Guido Guinicelli (sic) of Lucca as asking if it were he who said 'Donne che avete intellecto d'amore' and Dante said

'Et io a lui: Io mi sono uno che, quando
Amor mi spira, noto, et in quel modo
Che dicta dentro vo significando'?

¹ In Papanti, pp. 85-87.

Do you not see that he says clearly that when the love of the Holy Spirit inspires his intellect, he notes the inspiration and afterwards reveals it according as the Spirit dictates and points out? desiring to point out that the subtle, profound subjects whereof he treats in this book may not be conceived without the singular favor and gift of the Holy Spirit? ” ” ”

The first part of this story is a close transcript of a passage in Boccaccio's *Vita*¹; for the rest, Carducci has said² that such a tale no doubt originated because of a popular suspicion that Petrarch was not duly reverent to his predecessor, which made men eager to attribute to him an opinion more consonant with their own conviction. The closing words are a repetition of the idea already found in Villani.

Even more extravagant, and bordering on the grotesque, is a tale of Sacchetti's³ concerning Antonio da Ferrara — a whimsical figure of the Trecento, who in his day was looked upon as something of a poet and who has even been suggested as the author of the *Professione di Fede*.⁴

“ Master Antonio da Ferrara was a man of stout heart, as well as something of a poet and temperamentally he was somewhat of a buffoon; and he was a man of vicious and sinful life. While he was in Ravenna — at the time when it was in the power of Bernardino da Polenta — it chanced that this Master Antonio, who was much addicted to gambling and one day had staked and lost all that he possessed, almost in despair entered the church of the Minor Friars, where is the tomb of the Florentine poet, Dante. Having observed an ancient Crucifix, half burned and smoked by the numerous candles which were placed about it, and seeing many of them lighted near it at the time, straightway he drew near and picking up all the candles and tapers which were burning there, he went toward Dante's tomb and placed them on it saying, ‘ Take these, for thou art more worthy of them than he. ’ The people, beholding this, marveled greatly, saying, ‘ What does this man ? ’ And all looked at one another. A steward of the lord of Ravenna who was passing through the church at that time saw this, and on his return to the palace told the lord what he had seen Master Antonio doing. The lord, who, like all men, was interested in such things, informed the Archbishop of Ravenna of what

¹ Pp. 72-73.

² *Della varia fortuna di Dante*, p. 355; cf. also p. 66, n. 1.

³ *Novelle*, ed. cit., No. CXXI, pp. 289 ff.; also in Papanti, pp. 58-61.

⁴ Cf. Carducci, op. cit., p. 309.

Master Antonio had done and bade him summon him before him, as though he were going to bring against him a charge of leaning toward the heretical doctrines of the Paterinians. The Archbishop sent for him without delay and he appeared. When the charge was read to him, that he might offer his defense, he denied not a word but confessed all, saying to the Archbishop, 'If you were to burn me, I would not speak otherwise, for always have I recommended myself to the Crucifix and never has he done me other than evil. Therefore, seeing so much wax set before it that it is half burned (would that it were wholly so!), I took up the lights and placed them on the tomb of Dante, who seemed to me to deserve them more than he. And if you do not believe me, look at the writings of each; you will judge those of Dante to be marvelous beyond nature and human wisdom and you will count the Gospels stupid. And even if there were lofty and marvelous things therein, it is small wonder that he who sees all things and has all things should show part of them in his writings. But the wonderful thing is that a man as insignificant as Dante, not having all things nor even a part of them, has seen all and written all. For this reason, then, he seems to me more worthy of such an array of lights than the other and henceforth I mean to recommend myself to his care. You perform your office and you take your ease, who for love of Him have fled all discomfort and live like sluggards. When you would hear more clearly from me, I will tell you on another occasion, when I have not staked all that I possess.'

"The Archbishop perceived him to be in straits and said: 'Then you have played and lost? You will return again.' Master Antonio replied: 'Would that you and all your likes had lost all that you possess! I would be right merry. Whether I return or no is my affair; and returning or not returning, you shall always find me thus minded or worse.' The Archbishop said: 'Well, depart with God's blessing — or with the devil's. And if I send for you, you will not come here. At least take to your lord some of the fruits that you have given me.' And so he departed.

"The lord, having learned what had happened, was greatly pleased with Master Antonio's arguments and made him a present that he might be able to pay. And for several days he took great delight with him over the candles which were offered to Dante. Afterwards Master Antonio set out for Ferrara — in a better mood. For at the time when Pope Urban V died and a picture of him was set up in a famous church in a

large city, he saw burning before it a huge torch of a candle that must have weighed two pounds, and before the Crucifix which was not far away was a sorry little penny candle. Taking up the torch, he stuck it up before the Crucifix, saying: 'A curse be on us if we would shift and change the realm of heaven as we daily change the earthly realm.' And so he went home. This was as fair and as noteworthy a speech as could have been spoken under such circumstances."

Dante, Christ, and the Pope, then, is the order of Antonio's hierarchy. Ricci¹ has made a study of the facts of the tale and has very plausibly demonstrated their possibility in point of time and temper, if not their actual occurrence. To us the story is of peculiar interest in that Sacchetti represents essentially the bourgeois, the average Italian of the fourteenth century rather than the trained aristocrat. If this may be looked upon as an example of his popular apotheosis, we have a no less striking tribute of homage from the man of letters in the sonnet, long attributed to Boccaccio:²

"Dante Alighieri son, Minerva oscura
D'intelligenza e d'arte, nel cui ingegno
L'eleganza materna aggiunse al segno
Che si tien gran miracol di natura.

L'alta mia fantasia pronta e sicura
Passò il tartareo e poi 'l celeste regno
E 'l nobil mio volume feci degno
Di temporale e spirital lettura.

Fiorenza gloriosa ebbi per madre,
Anzi matrigna a me pietoso figlio,
Colpa di lingue scellerate e ladre.

Ravenna fummi albergo nel mio esiglio
Et ella ha il corpo, e l'alma il sommo Padre,
Presso cui invidia non vince consiglio."

¹ Cf. *Fanfulla della Domenica*, 14 Nov. 1886. I am obliged to accept the reference on the authority of L. di Francia, *Francesco Sacchetti*, Pisa, 1902, p. 132.

² Cf. *Antologia delle opere minori*, ed. Gigli, Florence, 1907, p. 300. Mr. E. H. Wilkins informs me that there is no evidence that this sonnet is Boccaccio's and believes that there is some internal evidence that it is a Renaissance work. Cf. also L. Manicardi & A. F. Massera, *Introduzione al testo critico del Canzoniere di Giovanni Boccacci*, Castelfiorentino, 1901, p. 13, n. 2, and p. 23. It has, however, been generally attributed to Boccaccio, even by Carducci. I have to thank Mr. H. W. L. Dana for calling my attention to this and to other points.

2. FANTASTIC

To enhance the idea of Dante's superhuman powers and virtues one of the most natural methods was the use of the miraculous, the supernatural. Since neither Iris nor the angel Gabriel was engaged in the duties which had once made glad the hearts of men or stricken them with fear, the only recourse was to the allegorical dream. This Boccaccio recognized. His first care was to provide the proper auguries for Dante's birth.¹

Dante's mother, he says, "when pregnant, and not far removed from the time when she should be delivered, saw in a dream of what wondrous kind the fruit of her womb should be; albeit it was not then understood of her nor of any other, though now, because of the event that has come to pass, it is most manifest to all.

"The gentle lady thought in her dream that she was under a most lofty laurel tree, on a green meadow, by the side of a most clear spring, and there she felt herself delivered of a son, who in shortest space, feeding only on the berries which fell from the laurel tree and the waters of the clear spring, her thought grew up into a shepherd, and strove with all his power to have of the leaves of that tree whose fruit had nourished him; and, as he struggled thereto, her thought she saw him fall, and when he rose again, she saw he was no longer a man, but had become a peacock. At the which thing, so great amazement laid hold of her that her sleep broke; and in no long space the due time came for her labor, and she was delivered of a son, whom by common consent with his father, they called by name Dante (the Giver); and rightfully so, because, as will be seen in the sequel, the issue was most perfectly consonant with this name. This was that Dante of whom is the present discourse."²

In the closing chapter of the *Vita*,³ he interprets this dream in what he is pleased to call "a rather superficial manner" (*assai superficialmente*). I will not take the space to quote his interpretation in full, but the gist is this: "The laurel under which the lady thought she gave our Dante to the world signifieth methinks that the disposition of heaven at his birth showed itself such as to indicate magnanimity and poetic eloquence; which two things are shown forth by the laurel, the tree of Phœbus,

¹ *Vita*, p. 10.

² Cf. Benvenuto da Imola, *Comentum*, I, 13-15, for another account based on Boccaccio.

³ *Vita*, pp. 76-82.

wherewith poets are wont to be crowned, as hath been shown at large above. The berries whence the child, when born, was nourished I understand to be the effects produced aforetime by such like disposition of the heavens; to wit, books of poetry and what poets teach . . . The clear spring of which she thought he drank I take to indicate naught else than the exuberance of philosophic teaching, moral and natural . . . His growing straightway into a shepherd signifies the excellence of his wit . . . His striving to possess some of those leaves, the fruit whereof had nourished him, shows forth naught else than the burning longing which he had (as said above) for the laurel crown . . . And whilst he was most ardently longing for these leaves it says that she saw him fall, which fall was no other than that whereby we all fall to rise no more, to wit death; which (if what was said above be borne in mind) came to pass at the moment of his utmost longing for the laurel crown.

"Then it goes on to say that from a shepherd she straightway saw him change into a peacock, by which transformation his after fame may right well be understood, which how far so ever it may rest on his other works yet chiefly liveth in his Comedy, which in my judgment excellently conforms to the peacock, if the characteristics of one and the other be examined. The peacock, as would seem, amongst his other attributes hath four notable ones: the first is that he hath angelic feathers, wherein he hath an hundred eyes; the second is that he hath foul feet and noiseless tread; the third is that he hath a voice right dreadful to hear; the fourth and last is that his flesh is odoriferous and corrupteth not. Now these four things are fully compassed by our poet's *Commedia*."

Proceeding, then, with a minute analysis of the application of these four attributes to the *Divina Commedia* he concludes, "for which thing, and for the others indicated above, it clearly appears that he who was a shepherd when alive hath become a peacock after his death, as we may believe was revealed by divine inspiration in sleep to his dear mother."

In speaking of the charge of licentiousness which Boccaccio brings against Dante, I have had occasion to mention the possible influence of a passage in the life of Virgil, commonly attributed to Suetonius. At the very beginning of that life,¹ we find the following dream story. "His mother while pregnant dreamed that she had brought forth a laurel branch which had no sooner touched the ground than it took root and

¹ Cf. Nettleship, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

sprang up straightway into a full-grown tree, laden with divers fruits and flowers, and on the morrow, as she was betaking herself with her husband to a nearby country-seat, turning aside from the road she brought forth a son in a ditch by the way."

Although Boccaccio makes no mention of Virgil in this connection, several of his imitators compare the dream of Dante's mother with that of Virgil's mother. So Giovanni da Serravalle,¹ having closely copied Boccaccio's version of the former, gives the latter in the very words of the Suetonius form, and attempts to demonstrate by a comparison Dante's superiority to Virgil. And Manetti adds to Boccaccio's account:² "I am readily inclined to believe dreams of this sort to be true, especially in the case of pregnant women whose hour is near, for it is a well-known fact, recorded by authors of merit, that the mothers of Dionysius, tyrant of Syracuse, and of Maro, the most renowned of all our poets, and of certain other famous men have seen strange things in the still of night." He then quotes the dream about the mother of Dionysius directly from Valerius Maximus³ and briefly paraphrases the Suetonius story. Landino,⁴ in his account, also gives the story of the dream of Virgil's mother and further, as analogous, the second of the two dreams of Astyages concerning his daughter Mandané, the mother of Cyrus, as it is recorded in Herodotus.⁵

Of course it is not to be overlooked that Dante has a similar account of prenatal warnings in his story of St. Dominic,

"E come fu creata, fu repleta
 Sì la sua mente di viva virtute
 Che nella madre lei fece profeta,"
(Par. XII, 58-60)

where the reference is to the black and white dog to which she dreamed she had given birth.⁶ And in a passage immediately following he has another suggestive conception, that in which he tells us how Heaven inspired the parents of St. Dominic to name him aright:

"Quinci si mosse spirito a nomarlo
 Del possessivo di cui era tutto.
 Dominico fu detto" — (ll. 68-70)

¹ Ed. cit., p. 14.

² In Solerti, p. 116.

³ *Facta dictaque memorabilia*, ed. Kempf, Leipzig, 1888, Bk. I, chap. vii, p. 42.

⁴ In Solerti, pp. 186-187.

⁵ Ed. Blakesley, London, 1854, I, 107-108.

⁶ Cf. Scartazzini, *Divina Commedia*, p. 815.

a bit of allegorizing which is distinctly like Boccaccio's explanation of the word "Dante," although the type of explanation is so common that little can be said of any probability of influence. On the whole, considering the fact that the most natural figure with whom to associate Dante's name was Virgil and that the fifteenth century biographers expressly quote the parallel episode from his life, I am inclined to believe that Boccaccio had the Suetonius story in mind when he wrote the account of the dream of Dante's mother.

A dream is also employed by the master of fiction to lend an other-world dedication to the *Divina Commedia*.¹

"It was Dante's wont, whenever he had done six or eight cantos, more or less, to send them from whatever place he was in, before any other had seen them, to Messer Cane della Scala, whom he held in reverence above all other men; and when he had seen them, Dante gave access to them to whoso desired. And having sent to him in this fashion all save the last thirteen cantos, which he had finished but had not yet sent him, it came to pass that, without bearing it in his mind that he was abandoning them, he died. And when they who were left behind, children and disciples, had searched many times, in the course of many months, amongst all his papers, if haply he had composed a conclusion to his work, and could by no means find the remaining cantos, and when every admirer of his in general was enraged that God had not at least lent him to the world so long that he might have had opportunity to finish what little remained of his work, they had abandoned further search in despair since they could by no means find them.

"So Jacopo and Piero, sons of Dante, both of them poets in rhyme, moved thereto by certain of their friends, had taken it into their minds to attempt to supplement the parental work, as far as in them lay, that it might not remain imperfect, when to Jacopo, who was far more zealous than the other in this work, there appeared a wondrous vision, which not only checked his foolish presumption but showed him where were the thirteen cantos which were wanting to this divine *Commedia* and which they had not known to find. A worthy man of Ravenna, whose name was Piero Giardino, long time a disciple of Dante's, related how when eight months had passed after the death of his master, the aforesaid Jacopo came to him one night, near to the hour that we call matins,

¹ *Vita*, pp. 68-70; Wicksteed's translation.

and told him that that same night a little before that hour, he, in his sleep, had seen his father Dante approach him, clad in whitest garments, and his face shining with an unwonted light; whom he seemed to ask if he were yet living, and to hear in reply that he was, but in the true life, not in ours. Whereon he seemed further to ask him if he had finished his work or ever he passed to that true life; and, if he had finished it, where was the missing part which they had never been able to find. To this he seemed to hear again in answer, 'Yea! I finished it.' Whereon it seemed that he took him by the hand and led him to that chamber where he was wont to sleep when he was living in this life; and touching a certain spot, he said, 'Here is that which ye so long have sought.' And no sooner was uttered that word than it seemed that both Dante and sleep departed from him at the same moment. Wherefore he averred, that he could not hold but come and signify what he had seen, that they might go together and search in the place indicated to him, which he held most perfectly stamped in his memory, to see whether a true spirit or a false delusion had shown it him. Wherefore, since a great piece of the night still remained, they departed together and went to the place indicated, and there found a mat fixed to the wall, which they lightly raised, and found a recess in the wall which neither of them had ever seen, nor knew that it was there; and there they found certain writings, all mouldy with the damp of the wall, and ready to rot had they stayed there much longer; and when they had carefully removed the mould and read, they saw that they contained the thirteen cantos so long sought by them. Wherefore, in great joy, they copied them out, and, after the author's wont, sent them first to Messer Cane, and then joined them on, as was meet, to the imperfect work. In such manner did the work of many years see its completion."

I think I have spoken before of Filippo Villani's use of this dream as an argument for the divine inspiration of the poem, a concession that is the more curious inasmuch as he brands the story of the dream of Dante's mother as "fabulous." But after all, belief in dreams is in essence a matter of temperament, and it is not incumbent on us to believe that Boccaccio put any great trust in his own stories. For him they are rather an artistic than a didactic device.

Outside of Boccaccio there is little attempt to introduce the supernatural and fantastic as a factor in Dante's life. But there is one

noteworthy example in the *Trattato della vita civile*¹ of Matteo Palmieri, a Florentine of the Quattrocento, who is more widely known as author of the *Cita di vita*, a philosophical poem inspired by St. Augustine's *Civitas dei* and manifestly influenced by the *Divina Commedia*.

"The poet Dante when young and eager for glory, at the time when preparations were being made in the Casentino for a hard battle between the Aretines and the Florentine forces, choosing a faithful comrade, a student of philosophy and one of the most learned men of the time in letters and liberal studies, went out to the Florentine camp. There they stayed a long time, giving helpful advice to the leaders of the army. At last when the day of battle came, and the companies were boldly arrayed on either side, the fight was waged for many hours with doubtful outcome. Finally by favor of fortune the balance of victory swung to the Florentines so that they put all their enemies to flight; and not without bloodshed and death on our side we won a complete victory.

"In this battle Dante put forth his strongest efforts; and so close was the pursuit of the scattered, fleeing enemies that few escaped their victorious hands; and with their onslaught they won Bibbiena and many other strongholds of the country of Arezzo. Engaged in these tasks for two days they departed far from the field of battle. On the third day, returning where the cruel conflict had taken place they found many of their own dead among the enemy. And so the joy of victory was mingled with grief for their lost friends, each one bearing his loss grievously, — one of a relative, another of a friend, — and they consoled and comforted one another, grieving at the fate of those who had departed. After several days, having poured out their hearts to one another, and, now that their grief was in large measure mitigated at the thought of their glorious death, consoled by their victory, they turned their minds to providing for their burial, especially of some of their noblest and most distinguished citizens. While they were thus occupied in finding bodies, Dante had for some time been searching for his dear friend, who had been stripped of mortal life by his wounds. When at last he came where the body lay, torn and wounded as he was — I know not whether resuscitated or dead — he suddenly leaped to his feet before Dante in the semblance of a living being (of so much I am certain by hearsay). Dante seeing him rise contrary to his expectation, full of surprise began to

¹ In Papanti, pp. 98-108.

tremble all over and for some time lost all power of speech, until the wounded man, addressing him, said :

“ ‘ Give heed and dismiss all suspicion, since not without cause am I sent through special grace by a light of the universe only to tell thee what I have beheld in the three days between the two lives. Therefore, give attention and keep in thy memory what I shall say, since it is ordained that through thee my secret vision shall be made known unto the human race.’

“ Dante, hearing this, recovered his faculties and throwing off his terror began to speak, saying, ‘ All thy speech shall be right dear to me, but if it be not displeasing, satisfy me first as to thy condition, that I may understand what grace has preserved thee so mightily these three days, with so many mortal wounds, and without nourishment or sustenance.’

“ ‘ It is grievous to me,’ he replied, ‘ that I may not satisfy thee wholly in thy questioning ; willingly would I disclose myself to thee, if I might. But take from me what I may give for it is not lawful for me to promise more.

“ ‘ While our companies were being arrayed, perceiving that the enemy were strong and well stationed, I was seized with such terror, that fearful and timid, I determined in my heart to take flight and to abandon our host. In this intention I persisted until Vieri de’ Cerchi, in whom lay the salvation of our army on that day, spurring toward the press of the enemy, cried out, “ Let him who would save his country follow me ! ” When I heard these words and saw him, who was the richest and most renowned of all our citizens, out of love for his country, rushing into such danger and into almost certain death with his nephew and his own son, I felt so rebuked that I condemned my error within me and recovering courage, instead of being timid, I became one of the bravest and did make resolve to fight with daring and to offer for the salvation of my country my life and all my possessions. So minded, together with many others, I followed the noble and daring Vieri ; and fighting valiantly against the reckless onslaught of the enemy, who nobly defended themselves with the greatest courage, we dealt and received blows and even death for some space of time, until we had victoriously broken the first two lines of the enemy. When now we were exhausted, lo ! Guglielmino, the captain and chief of the hostile side, with a fresh, well-trained company entered the battle with such a rush that the victory in truth was

beginning to incline in their favor, had not I, aroused by our losses, calling on God to save us from our evils, spurred furiously into the thickest of the fray, straight upon Guglielmino, the chief of them all, and — with God's good pleasure — struck him down with a mortal blow. Immediately I was encompassed by all his followers, but for a time I defended myself; at last strength failed my limbs and, pierced through, as you see me, I left me a bloody and well-avenged victory. At this point my knowledge of myself begins to grow shadowy, nor can I well satisfy your question whether I remained in the body or lived outside the body in another. But alive I surely was and I felt hampered by my heavy limbs, as one who cannot help himself when he dreams of danger. And lo! without knowing how, I found myself on the confines of a bright orb, which at first seemed to my eyes to be large beyond measure. This seemed to be so brightly illumined by another's light that it provided light to the whole earth. I, eager to rise to it, was closed within myself nor did my courage avail me, when lo! an old man of reverent authority appeared before my sight, like to an imperial majesty, oftentimes seen depicted by me. When I beheld him, I was all a-tremble; he, taking my right hand said: "Be of good courage and give heed to what I shall tell thee, and keep it in memory." Somewhat restored by his words of comfort, trembling I began, "Excellent Father, if it is lawful for thee and if such a boon is not forbidden me, in mercy be not loath to tell me who thou art, before thou enterest into longer speech." Benignly he replied, "On earth I was named Charlemagne."

"Full dear a favor is thy sight to me," said I, "oh, holy Emperor," and reverently bowing low, I placed my lips upon his feet; then rising, I continued, "Charles, not only the grandeur and the glory of thy excellent deeds but also the merit of thy many virtues, thy meekness, mercy, supreme justice, and the ordered fashion of all thy words and deeds, aided and adorned by thy learning and study of divine and human letters, are a fitting cause that thou shouldst be called 'Great.' And verily thy fame and glory, as is meet, lasts and shall last forever with the world, known even to the stars. For the Christian faith, thou didst fight against many nations—Spain, Flanders, France, and even in distant Britain and Ireland thou didst conquer and convert to the faith. Then, returning to succor Italy in its misery, hitherto the slave of the barbarians for five hundred years, thou didst liberate it from the hand of Desiderius, putting

an end to the mad fury of the pernicious Lombards. The Supreme Pontiff, insulted and for many years deprived of his dignity, thou didst restore to his sometime honor and pristine state in the Apostolic See. The Empire, deserted for many centuries, thou didst anew raise to dignity and in thee alone lay the salvation of Christendom and by thee a large part of the earth was restored and freed."

"' While I was still desirous of continuing, the holy Father interrupted me, saying, "Thy words are superfluous with me and delay that which will make thee content. Give heed and know that thou art in the centre of the universe. All those immeasurable bodies, which diffuse so bright a light above thee and which may be contemplated by elevation of mind, are eternal, and first causes which are preserved immutable. The part which is below thee is mutable and by a necessity imposed upon it by the eternally stable powers continually suffers and varies. This essence, operating by a power which nourishes itself in its own life, generates the first causes, together with the eternal movement of the whole universe. From this are formed all the animals which are on earth, what flies through the air and all the marvels that the ample sea hides within its waves; the fragile body and all the mortal members are from that lower part which I have said is mutable, sustained by the glowing vigor which is diffused in them according to its measure. To men alone is given the mind of these eternal bodies, which, luminous and resplendent, animated by a divine spirit, move in wondrous wise. That which is within us of these lower, corruptible bodies is servile, mortal and common to the beasts; wherefore, if we are subject to earthly passions, in all things we shall be blinded, overcome and conquered; and without regard for uprightness, given over to the delights of the senses, we shall be like beasts. But the spirit of divine nature, which is perforce stable, commands in God's behalf and places laws on the appetites. He who, disobedient, presumes in his own desire and follows his own will, scorns the commandment made by that God to whom belong these heavens and all that thou dost see. Wherefore, as on a servant, unfaithful and rebellious to his law does he close the gates through which I came to thee, nor will he permit him to return into His city. Whence he remains forever in that place where he is most delighted. This place ye on earth and we likewise in heaven call by the same word, 'Hell.' Whenever he encloses souls within the infernal borders, they are in death, for they are removed

from the simple and individual source of their nature. For this reason what ye on earth call life is certain death and only those live who, obedient to God, after they are loosed from their bodily bonds are carried up to these heavens. This great light, to which thou hast risen by thyself, is the moon, which is illumined by another's light, as ye say on earth."

"At this I assure you that I became dumb with wonder nor ever should I have recognized it, so transformed did it seem from that which we behold from the earth, and in magnitude it surpassed all our measurements. In reverence I did not interrupt and he continued,

"This is the border between life and death; above, all is eternal gladness and immortal joy; below, are all the evils, torments and penalties which can be suffered. That is the blind world, wherein are *Lethe* and *Acheron*, the *Styx*, *Cocytus* and *Phlegethon*. Down there *Rhadamanthus* and *Minos* administer the laws under whose judgment no guilty soul is pardoned. Down there are the vultures who feed on the hearts which never are consumed. That is the place where men starve in the midst of delicate viands; there is the wheel which turns with its sharp, tearing teeth. One by force of chest rolls weights and one, trembling, fears lest the projection of heavy weights, in peril of which he constantly sees himself, may crash upon his head. In short, that is the centre where every torment roasts; *Charon* leads all and *Pluto* and *Cerberus* devour all. The soul, fastened by its bodily fetters, easily falls headlong through the open door into this Hell; the toilsome task is to return upward afterward and to rise to the lofty stars, since one must scale the glowing cliffs by the opposite path. By this path is the first salvation — to restrain the appetites under the control of the mind, that we may not seem to scorn reason, granted to us by God for our salvation. Nothing is done on earth more pleasing to God than loving justice, mercy and piety, qualities which, though valuable in our relations to individuals, are most valuable in our relations to our country. To the saviors of their country the path to Heaven is open, to those everlasting places which thou dost behold from here."

"At these words I asked with fear and reverence if it was permitted to me to pass through these eternal lights. He answered, "Only the ardent love which made thee, out of devotion to thy country, fight bravely at *Campaldino*, makes thee worthy of this and to no one does God so liberally command these doors to be opened, as to the governors of

republics, who preserve the throng of citizens, legally gathered together in a union of corporate contentment. This ample love for universal salvation was ever my guide on earth; now in Heaven I am happy with the blest in far greater good; and I still find the virtue which he cultivates among mortals below so pleasing that through this kinship in interest I become his friend; moved by this and seeing that thou wert dead for love of my Florence, which once I restored on earth, I descended to thee to show thee that glory awaits each one who gives heed to this in your life."

"Thus speaking he took us out of a shade, as if a lamp were taken out of a lantern, and I found myself light and free, as a thing without members. Then he started forth and put me behind him in the first of the eternal lights. There he said to me, "Look, while we go, how the universe is bound together by nine orbs; the lowest which is fixed in the midst, as a centre toward which all the surrounding weights fall, must be familiar to thee. See how diminished your earth appears already, and from heaven it will seem to thee almost a point. This, in which we are, is the least of the holy lights, more distant than any other from Heaven and nearer the earth; see how it is lighted and adorned by the rays of the sun. Mercury is next to this and revolves with wonderful speed. Bright Venus is the one which gazes on herself in the third circle about the sun. Behold the sun which in order is placed in the midst of all as the guide and prince of the other lights; illuminating, it fills all things with its brightness, until because it appears alone (*solo*) on earth, among the celestial lights it is called the Sun (*Sole*). This other with the redder glow, which seems horrible, is Mars. Benign and resplendent is the rise to Jupiter, and Saturn is the last which may be reached in Heaven."

"Arrived there, marvelous contemplation seized me; for I saw countless stars never before seen by me on earth, and their greatness was beyond all human conception. The sky appeared adorned with so many varied signs, that in its loveliness it seemed fashioned by some good master of certain purpose. With twice five signs it was marked off in opposite regions. One of these seemed far more flashing with brilliant whiteness than the other and within were flashing lights of blazing flames. Two gates appeared in it in opposite regions, one had the Crab as its sign, the other, in a higher place, the Capricorn. The sun marked its

course as far as these when it reached its highest degree. "Within these gates," said my guide, "are the blest." Then, having warned me that man may not enter the higher gate, he put me in through the gate of the Crab.

"In vain should I tell, if only I could tell, the great and holy company of eternal creatures who dwell in that Heaven in joy without end. But I truly believe that I should speak the truth if I said, that for every man who ever lived in the world there are thousands of heavenly creatures there. There I saw the souls of all the citizens who in this world have governed well their states. Among them I recognized Fabricius, Curtius, Fabius, Scipio and Metellus, and many others who for the salvation of their country counted themselves and their own interests of little weight, but to tell their names would be without profit.

"Charles, with gladsome mien, turning to me said, "Thou canst now see in very truth that men are not mortal, but that it is the flesh which dies in them and that man is not what his form shows. As is the mind, so is the man; for if the mind properly nourishes the soul, it is joined with God and as an eternal thing eternally abides. Nothing in the world is more excellent than training it with good acts in good deeds. No task can be better among men than watching out for the safety of the country, preserving the cities and maintaining the union and harmony of the properly incorporated throngs. Those who practice this virtue beyond all others, in these divine seats, as in their own house, shall live eternally content among the blest, for this is the place to which the saviors of their states on earth have come and to which they are at last to return."

"Dante who harkened with wonderment to all these words wished to reply, 'Since you have made known to me so excellent a reward, I will strive with all diligence to attain it.' But even as he began, the body of his dead friend fell to the ground. Then after he had waited for some time, to see if he would rise again, he provided for his burial and returned to the army."

This fantastic tale, as Dr. Moore has observed,¹ is evidently constructed from a reminiscence of the myth at the end of Plato's *Republic*, respecting Er the son of Armenius, with further details suggested by a familiarity with the *Divina Commedia*. Numerous incidents and turns of phrase

¹ *Early Biographers*, pp. 115 ff.

are fashioned from Dante's own, such as the "old man of reverent authority" who is another Cato ("un veglio degno di tanta riverenza in vista," *Purg.* I, 31-32), or the phrase "by force of chest" ("per forza di poppa," *Inf.* VII, 27), many of which have been gathered together by Dr. Moore. He might well have added, however, that the influence of the *Æneid* is quite as strong, the whole scene of Hell being a paraphrase of the description of Tartarus by the Sibyl.¹

As to Dante's presence at Campaldino, it is now generally accepted, in spite of Bartoli's assertion² that it is a legend, that Dante bore a part in the battle. Lionardo Bruni's account³ has almost the savor of documentary evidence and he even quotes a letter, now lost, in which Dante says,⁴ "Ten years had already passed since the battle of Campaldino, wherein the Ghibelline faction was all but utterly slain and undone, and wherein I found myself, not raw in arms; and wherein I had much dread and at the end the greatest gladness, by reason of the varying chances of that battle." Moreover it is hard not to interpret Dante's own words,

"Io vidi già cavalier mover campo,
E cominciare stormo, e far lor mostra,
E talvolta partir per loro scampo:
Corridor vidi per la terra vostra,
O Aretini, e vidi gir gualdane,
Ferir torneamenti, e correr giostra,"
(*Inf.* XXII, 1-6)

as a vivid personal recollection of the day which broke the hopes of the Ghibelline cause.

Such are the few instances of fantastic events associated with Dante's name. Although they are not essentially different in subject matter from many of the purely popular medieval legends, there is a certain sophistication about their form which makes it impossible to consider them as such. Even if this were not the case, the fact that there is no suggestion of them outside of the few imitators or copiers of Boccaccio would argue against their popular diffusion. However, it is easy to go too far in such an inference and we should do well to avoid the utilization of such negative testimony. That a story is not found in literature is of course no evidence that it did not exist in oral tradition.

¹ Cf. *Æneid*, VI, 562-627.

² *Vita*, p. 93.

³ In Solerti, p. 99.

⁴ *Id.*, p. 100.

3. LEGENDARY

As an instance of the fallacy of following this method of argument, we may cite a story of Dante which is said to be still current in Florence.

"LO SPIRITO DI DANTE ALIGHIERI"

"When anyone is passionately fond of poetry, he should sit by night on the *panchina* (curbing) in the Piazza di Santa Croce or in other places and, having read his poetry, pronounce the following:

' Dante, che eri
La gran poeta,
Siei morto, ma vero,
Il tuo spirito
E sempre rimasto,
Sempre per nostro
Nostro aiuto.

Ti chiamo, ti prego!
E ti scongiuro
A voler aiutarmi.
Questa poesia
Voglio imparare;
Di più ancora,
Non voglio soltanto
Imparar la a cantare,
Ma voglio imparare
Di mi testa
Poter le scrivere,
E così venire
Un bravo poeta.'

"And then a form of a man will approach from around the statue, advancing gently to the causeway, and will sit on it like any ordinary person, and begin to read the book, and the young man who has invoked the poet will not fail to obtain his wish. And the one who has come from the statue is no other indeed than Dante himself.

"And it is said that if in any public place of resort or inn, any poet sings the poems of Dante, he is always present among those who listen, appearing as a gentleman or poor man, according to the place.

¹ C. G. Leland, *Legends of Florence*, New York, 1895, 1st series, pp. 63-64.

" Thus the spirit of Dante enters everywhere without being seen.

" If his poems be in the house of any person who takes no pleasure in them, the spirit of the poet torments him in dreams until the works are taken away."

This legend — for it certainly may properly be so called — must have been handed down from century to century, and yet there is not the least trace of it in the literature of the earlier centuries. And there is little doubt that around many places in Florence, for that matter in the rest of Italy, such as the so-called " Sasso di Dante " already mentioned,¹ or the house in Gubbio² where he is said to have rested, there has been an unbroken tradition of local interest orally preserved from generation to generation.

Whatever interest such legendary remains may have for us, the Dante whom they trace is a colorless, indefinable figure, quite different from the man who lived in the memory of the first centuries after his death. For them he was the pilgrim, wandering from court to court, looking down with calm disdain alike on princes and on buffoons, distraught with the high concerns of the spheres beyond this present; for them he was the divinely inspired poet of the *Divina Commedia*. To-day their garrulous tales and keen anecdotes still fashion the man — sensitive, reserved, scornful — a man not unworthy to travel in man's behalf

" Giù per lo mondo senza fine amaro,
E per lo monte, del cui bel cacume
Gli occhi della mia Donna mi levarò,
E poscia per lo ciel di lume in lume."

¹ Cf. p. 33.

² Cf. Pelli, *Memorie per servire alla vita di Dante Alighieri*, 2d ed., Florence, 1823, p. 136.

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